

# THE PROBLEM OF A CAREER

SOLVED BY 36 MEN OF DISTINCTION

COMPILED BY

J. A. R. CAIRNS

(OF THE MIDDLE TEMPLE, BARRISTER-AT-LAW.  
ONE OF THE MAGISTRATES OF THE  
POLICE COURTS OF THE  
METROPOLIS)

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DEDICATED

(BY GRACIOUS PERMISSION)

TO

His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales





## FOREWORD

**T**HIS book aims at presenting the professions from the inside, indicating the nature of the work and the qualities and qualifications needed for success.

The various sections have been written by men who have won distinction in their particular callings, and the book, therefore, speaks with the high authority of achievement.

It is fitting that a tribute should be paid to the generous spirit with which contributors responded to the invitation to give the benefit of their experience to lads on the threshold of manhood. It has been a revelation in interest and spontaneity. Every one was anxious to make the way of decision easy, pleasant and, above all, wise.

I thank all those who have contributed to this book, and express my deep appreciation of the graciousness of His Royal Highness, the Prince of Wales (to whom the book is dedicated), who has exhibited his characteristic interest in the things that affect the welfare of the Youths of the Empire.

J. A. R. CAIRNS.



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# The Navy

AUTHORISED BY

ADMIRAL OF THE FLEET EARL BEATTY, G.C.B., O.M., etc.

**W**HAT are you going to be? Have you ever thought about the Navy? These are questions which boys may often be asked by their parents or friends or masters, and those whose relations or friends are associated with the Navy may be able without much difficulty to form an idea as to whether the Navy appeals to them or not. But there are doubtless many who, though feeling the call of the sea, know nothing about the Navy, its attractions, its prospects, the life or even how to enter it, and the object of this article is to try and put before you what the Navy offers and what the Navy requires of its officers.

Officers of the Navy are divided as follows :—

1. *Executive Officers*, that is, those who control the armament and navigate the ship, and who rise in the line of command and may become Captains in command of ships and Admirals commanding fleets. Age of entry, about 13½ years or between 17½ and 18½.

2. *Engineer Officers*, who not only control the complex machinery of a modern ship, but who are responsible for the design of that wonderful machinery, and who may rise to the position of Engineer-in-Chief. Age of entry, same as for Executive Officers.

3. *Accountant Officers*, who are responsible for all matters connected with pay, victualling and clothing, and the various stores that a modern ship carries. They



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also provide the secretarial staff for Captains and Admirals, and an Admiral's secretary is, perhaps, one of the most attractive jobs in the Service. Accountant Officers are also regarded as the experts on Naval Law, and a Paymaster is always appointed as the Officiating Deputy Judge Advocate at a Naval Court Martial. Age of entry, between 17 and 18 years.

4. *Medical Officers.* These do not join the Navy until they have obtained their degree, which means that the decision to embark on a naval career need not be made till much later than for other branches. Age of entry, between 21 and 28 years.

5. *Marine Officers,* who are specially trained for service both afloat and ashore. Afloat they assist the Executive Officers in the control of the armament of the ship, whilst if any call is made on the Navy for service on shore in connection with local disturbances, etc., the Marines are the first to land. Age of entry, between 18 and 19 years.

You can see, therefore, that the Navy has room for and needs fellows of widely different tastes. For the boy who has the ambition to command a ship there is the Executive line, while for those of a mechanical turn of mind there is the Engineering Branch, which offers an ensured life's career and the opportunity of seeing the world with your hobby as your profession.

The Accountant Branch offers the advantage that the cost to one's parents is much less, which is bound to be a consideration in these times for a number of people whose sons are just the type the Navy wants. Also the medical examination is not so stiff, and boys will be accepted who would be or may have been rejected, say, for eyesight for Dartmouth.

For those who have leanings towards a military life, but who at the same time are attracted by the sea, there is the

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Royal Marine Corps. There has hardly been an action of any importance during the last 250 years, whether on the sea or on land, in which the Marines have not been represented.

The Medical Branch offers an ensured career, and in view of the fact that Medical Officers have had to bear the whole cost of their education and professional training their pay is, generally speaking, higher than that of corresponding ranks in other branches.

Executive Officers receive their training partly, Engineer Officers largely, and Marine and Accountant Officers entirely at the expense of the country. And before they are 21 all officers can manage to live on their pay and still have quite a good time.

### A. PROMOTION.

All Executive, Engineer, and Accountant Officers rise to the rank of Lieutenant-Commander, which corresponds with a Major, and accelerated promotion can be obtained by doing well in certain examinations. Roughly speaking, promotion to Lieutenant comes when you are about 22, and to Lieutenant-Commander it is purely automatic on attaining eight years' seniority as a Lieutenant.

For Executive Officers promotion from Lieutenant-Commander to Commander and from Commander to Captain is entirely by selection, while from Captain to Admiral it is solely by seniority.

In the executive line by no means every Lieutenant-Commander or Commander, however able, can receive promotion, but for those who do not get it there are many billets, both in the Navy and outside it, for which such officers are suitable; and remember there is a pension.

Engineer and Accountant Officers possess a distinct advantage over Executive Officers in this matter of promotion, since they are practically certain to attain the rank of Commander, save for unsuitability or misconduct. For



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promotion to the rank of Captain, however, the competition is as keen as for Executive Officers.

Medical Officers enter with the rank of Surgeon-Lieutenant and promotion to Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander and Surgeon-Commander is automatic six and twelve years respectively after entry, subject to passing certain examinations. From Surgeon-Commander to Surgeon-Captain promotion is by selection, and the competition is as keen as for other officers.

### B. PAY AND PENSIONS.

Executive Officers and Accountant Officers get the same rate, and in both cases allowances are also given for special qualifications or for carrying out certain duties. Engineer Officers receive a higher rate, and they, together with Medical Officers, are the best paid branches of the Navy.

The following table will give a rough idea of what you may expect to get at various stages of your career :—

<i>Rank.</i>	<i>Age.</i>	<i>Pay per annum.</i>		
		<i>Executive.</i>	<i>Engineer.</i>	<i>Accountant.</i>
Midshipman ..	18	£91	£91	£91
Sub-Lieutenant ..	21	£173	£225	£173
Lieutenant ..	23	£258	£310	£258
Lieut.-Commander	31	£517	£585	£520
Commander ..	37	£690	£775	£690

The ages shown in the above table do not indicate the actual age of promotion to a particular rank, but what your rank and pay may be at a given age. For Executive and Engineer Officers the age of promotion to Commander may vary from about 34 to 37, for Accountant Officers it is about 38.

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For Medical Officers the rates are :—

Surgeon-Lieutenant (on entry, age between 21 and 28),  
£413.

Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander (six years after entry),  
£602.

Surgeon-Commander (twelve years after entry), £775.

For Marine Officers the rates are :—

2nd-Lieutenant (on entry), £130 per annum.

Lieutenant (on promotion), £173 per annum.

Lieutenant (after four years), £258 per annum.

Captain (on promotion), £517 per annum.

Major (on promotion), £690 per annum.

In every case the rates are exclusive of any specialist allowances, and are liable to a certain decrease or increase according to the cost of living.

As regards pensions, the maximum rates for officers of all branches are :—

Lieutenant-Commander .. ..	£450
Commander .. ..	£600
Captain .. ..	£900

At the present time (1925) these rates are approximately 5½ per cent. less, and are liable to further review from time to time according to the cost of living.

When considering the rates of pay compared with other professions, bear in mind the capital value represented by these pensions, and remember that though pay may be less than can be obtained in other walks of life, provision is assured for your old age.

### C. WHAT THE NAVY OFFERS AND REQUIRES.

If your ambition is to become a rich man, then it is no use your reading any further, because the Navy is not a money-making profession.



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What the Navy does offer is the opportunity of serving your country, of seeing the world under the finest circumstances, good pay, a pension for your old age, much excellent sport and plenty of games. And beyond these attractions, perhaps an even greater inducement to adopt a naval career lies in the opportunities it affords for making life-long friends.

Life on board ship naturally helps to make these opportunities, and probably there are more life-long friendships formed in the Navy than in any other walk of life.

These are the main attractions that the Navy offers. Now for what it requires.

It needs a fellow who will play the game ; one who will give his time and his brains and his energy to the welfare of his men, to the good of his ship, the Service, his King and country. Don't think this means that you are to put aside all personal ambition ; far from it, you must strive for promotion, but it must be won as a reward for good, hard work and be for the good of the Service, not for your personal benefit nor achieved through having caused someone else to fail.

Then it needs fellows who will be loyal, just as a team must be loyal to its captain. Also you must be loyal to your subordinates as well as to your superiors.

Then, of course, the Navy wants the best type of officer. By this is not meant it needs only fellows of exceptional mental ability. It has room for them and they have full scope, especially in experimental and design work. But there is equal scope for the fellow who manages only to scrape through examinations, but who has the gift of leadership so that his men will follow him anywhere.

There is room for the man who is good at games and also for him whose nature is studious, since it is only by study that one can discover the cause of success or failure in the past, and endeavour to apply it for the benefit of the future.

But with all these varying qualities, there is one which is necessary in all, namely character, and by the best type of

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officer is really meant a man with the finest type of character. It is character that counts more than anything, and this is emphasised early in the career of a naval officer, because when a term leaves Dartmouth a medal is given by the King to the cadet who is considered to have the finest character. And in the Navy List the letters K.M. are placed against the name of these officers.

How does one cultivate the qualities required of an officer? To be a good officer, and as such properly to exercise command over men, you have first got to learn to serve and obey, and you must learn to cultivate a cheerful and willing obedience. The fellow who is cheerful under trying conditions is of untold worth. Then you have got to think of others before yourself, particularly of the welfare of your men. A man who can only think of himself or who places his personal pleasures before his duty is of no use to the Navy. Just as the prefects or captain of games lead a house, so the Navy requires officers to act as leaders to the men.

You have got to learn to be firm, to be just, to be ready to act as an adviser or friend and, above all, to be capable at your job. The men are quick to appreciate an officer's worth, and if you show these qualities in whole or in part you will one day reap the reward of discovering that you have with you a body of men on whose loyalty you can absolutely rely, and the knowledge that they have confidence in you as their leader is of far greater worth than riches.

#### D, ENTRY AND TRAINING.

If, having read as far as this, you feel attracted by the idea of a naval career, a further point in its favour is that for Executive and Engineer Officers there is the great advantage of having two alternative methods of entry.

If at the age of about  $13\frac{1}{2}$  you have not made up your mind what to be, or do not succeed in getting into Dartmouth, you can, at the age of about  $17\frac{1}{2}$ , go up for what is known as a "Public School or Special Entry" Cadetship. There is



absolutely no difference between the two forms of entry as regards prospects and pay.

Supposing you have passed into Dartmouth. You go there for eleven terms, which cover a period of three years eight months, and are then appointed to a battleship for a further eight months' training. At the end of this time you are rated a Midshipman and become an actual unit in the fighting organisation of a battleship, battle cruiser or cruiser ; or, if you take up Engineering, you go to the R.N. College, Keyham (Plymouth).

During your time at Dartmouth, apart from ordinary school work, such as Mathematics, Mechanics, Naval History, Geography, English, French and Science, you will begin to learn something about Seamanship, Ship Construction and Engineering. And, of course, there is physical training and drill on the lines of the O.T.C. of a Public School.

You will be expected to work hard, and a certain amount of seniority is gained by passing well out of Dartmouth, but out of study hours there is ample opportunity for recreation. Apart from the usual facilities for games, there is a pack of beagles, a number of skiffs and gigs called "blue boats," and some small sailing cutters. Also, of course, a swimming bath. Swimming, boat-pulling and boat-sailing should all be cultivated,

Now assume that you have decided to be an Executive Officer. On being rated Midshipman you remain at sea as such for a further two years four months, when you then go up for your examination in Seamanship for the rank of Lieutenant. Having passed that ordeal, you are promoted to the rank of Acting Sub-Lieutenant, and the small white patches on the collar of your coat which denote the rate of midshipman disappear and you ship the one gold stripe on the sleeve which denotes your new rank.

If, instead of going to Dartmouth, you obtain a Special Entry Cadetship from a Public School, you have one year's training in a harbour ship and then go to sea as a Midshipman.

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From then onwards your life is exactly the same as if you had been to Dartmouth, except that as you come to sea older than Dartmouth cadets special arrangements are made whereby on promotion to Lieutenant your seniority is adjusted to bring it into line age for age with Dartmouth officers, and so avoid hardship to the Public School entry.

Actually the Special Entry Cadet may be about 6 months older on promotion to Lieutenant than the Dartmouth Cadet, but this in no way interferes with his prospects.

### *E. THE LIFE OF A MIDSHIPMAN.*

Before going further into the career before you, it is perhaps as well now to dwell for a moment on the life of a midshipman ; there are few officers who do not look back on those days as the best time of their life.

The first and perhaps greatest attraction is that at an age when your contemporaries are still at school or just going up to the University you are an integral part of the fighting organisation of a ship, with duties and responsibilities of your own. Added to this you are seeing the world. You may be in the Mediterranean or Atlantic Fleets, or on the China, East Indies, Cape of Good Hope or North American and West Indies Station. In any case, you will visit strange lands, see something of the people of other nations, and have the opportunity of realising at an early age something of the greatness of the British Empire and the diversity of its peoples.

There is no training in the world to compare with the life of a Midshipman. The responsibility which is given you comes at an age when it is light to bear, and so you get accustomed, probably unconsciously, to the far greater responsibilities that come later on in life.

Whether it be as Midshipman in charge of a picket boat on a cold and stormy winter's night, say at Portland, or as a member of a picnic party somewhere on the China Station, you are gaining experience, acquiring knowledge and, most important of all, developing your character.



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Your life is not all work. Opportunities for games are good, and each station is usually noted for some particular form of sport—China for shooting, North America for fishing, and so on.

While on this subject of recreation it is an excellent thing to learn to ride. Also, if possible, go in for hunting. Packs near naval ports are so good to officers that it is not as expensive as you may think. Hunting affords excellent training, because the qualities required of a straight rider to hounds all help in the making of a good officer.

At Malta you can get the opportunity of learning to play polo, which is not unduly expensive, though probably beyond your means until you are a Lieutenant.

As regards the living arrangements in a ship. The Captain has his own quarters and messes alone. The junior officers, up to and including officers of Sub-Lieutenant's rank, live in the gunroom; other officers in the wardroom.

A gunroom is ruled by the Sub-Lieutenant, whose word is law, and his responsibility for the upbringing of a number of midshipmen is by no means a light one.

Junior officers do not have cabins, but sleep in hammocks, which incidentally are much more comfortable in rough weather than bunks.

As regards your work in the ship. In action you may be in a 15-inch turret or 6-inch battery or employed in connection with the control of the guns or torpedoes.

At sea you have your watch to keep and your own special duty to carry out in connection with the many gunnery and torpedo exercises that take place. As Midshipman of the watch it is your duty to go away in charge of the life-boat if a man falls overboard.

In harbour a certain amount of time is spent in formal instruction—school, seamanship, gunnery, torpedo and engineering—but your main jobs are to take charge of a boat and to keep watch.

Boat work is without doubt the most interesting duty that falls to the lot of a Midshipman. The boat is your own

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command, and apart from her value, which may be several thousands of pounds, you are responsible for the lives and welfare of her crew.

During your time as a Midshipman you are likely to find yourself appointed to a destroyer for some months to get an insight into destroyer work.

### F. SUBSEQUENT CAREER.

After passing in seamanship for Lieutenant you will come ashore for various courses which last for a little more than a year. These consist of a six months' Educational Course at Greenwich and Gunnery, Torpedo, Pilotage and Divisional Courses at Portsmouth. The Divisional Course is to fit you to take charge of a division of men when you are a Lieutenant. For all these courses, except the Divisional Course, certificates are awarded and accelerated promotion is gained by doing well.

Having completed these courses you are appointed to a sea-going ship again; it may be as Sub-Lieutenant of a gunroom in a battleship, battle cruiser or cruiser, or you may go to a destroyer or sloop. In the majority of cases it will be to a ship abroad.

The next event in your career is to decide in what line, if any, you want to specialise—Gunnery, Torpedo, Navigation, Surveying, Signals, Air Work, Physical Training, Submarine or Anti-submarine work.

In addition to the above there is another line in which you can strike out, namely Destroyer Work, which with Submarine Work affords the great attraction of having your own command early in life; that is, as a Lieutenant-Commander or even a Lieutenant.

You can see from these various duties in which officers are required to specialise what an extremely wide scope there is for every kind of interest.

Remember, though, that it is a matter of being selected, and this can only be achieved by showing keenness and general fitness for the work in which you wish to specialise.



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There is no need, nor is it possible, to pursue your career farther. It depends partly on circumstances over which you have no control, but to a larger measure on yourself, your character and the zeal, energy and ability you display.

### G. EXPENSES.

Now to deal with the question of expense during training and when you first go to sea.

At Dartmouth the fees are £50 per term, and extras come to about £15 per term. Your original outfit costs about £85 and annual upkeep about £20.

Thus, apart from the original outfit, the total expenses, including clothes, are about £215 per annum, which compares quite favourably with the expenses at a Public School.

For Special Entry Cadets the cost for the whole year's training is £50. This sum, together with the pay of 1s. per day allowed to Special Entry Cadets and the messing allowance credited to them by the Admiralty, should be sufficient to cover all expenses. If not, the deficit, which would only be quite small, would also have to be paid by your parents.

The cost of the outfit and annual upkeep may be taken as the same as for Dartmouth.

As regards the expenses and general cost of living while you are a Midshipman, you will probably want to know if a private allowance is necessary. It really depends on the manner in which a boy has been brought up. If he has had the use of a large car, the best shooting and has generally lived in luxury he may desire to continue living on this scale in the Navy; to do this money will be required. If, on the other hand, he has been brought up by parents who have little to spare, he will find gunroom life very enjoyable without money other than the 5s. per day *pay, provided his clothes are paid for.*

In fact, extravagant living should not be encouraged, and it is undesirable that a young fellow should have a large allowance. An occasional small present is far preferable.

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If a Midshipman has to pay for his own kit he should be allowed about £30 a year, this allowance to be paid quarterly. But in this case parents should make it quite clear that they will not expect to have to pay any bills themselves.

An average mess bill works out at about £5 10s. 0d. a month, *i.e.* £66 a year, which leaves £24 for other expenses. A Midshipman in the Atlantic Fleet can manage on this. Abroad it is desirable that, if possible, a Midshipman should have an allowance of up to £20 a year for "sight-seeing purposes," this allowance being controlled by the Captain of his ship.

To sum up, therefore, parents of a Midshipman in the Atlantic Fleet must be prepared to provide about £30 a year, either as an allowance or in actual payment of bills for necessary clothes.

If abroad, up to £20 a year additional for sight-seeing. It is quite unnecessary and most undesirable that any allowance in excess of this should be given.

A Midshipman's monthly mess bill taken at random from a gunroom in the Atlantic Fleet is given below :—

	£	s.	d.	
Messing ..	1	17	6	
Extras ..	0	15	0	
Wine ..	0	12	3	
Tobacco ..	0	5	1	
Hammock ..	0	2	6	(paid to the rating who looks after it)
Postage ..	0	2	7	
Stationery ..	0	4	11	
Laundry ..	0	12	8	
Cards ..	0	1	1	
Mess share ..	0	3	2	
Subscriptions	0	5	0	
Servant ..	0	10	0	
	<hr/> £5 11 9 <hr/>			



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Of course, not all the above expenses are essential. For example, wine, tobacco and cards. "Wine" includes beer. By Admiralty order no one under 20 years of age is allowed to drink any spirits. A Midshipman's wine bill is limited to 15s. per month.

On promotion to Sub-Lieutenant you will have a good deal of new uniform to get, but instead of having to buy this entirely at your own expense, which used to be the case, a grant of £50 is now provided by the State.

### *H.* ENGINEER, ACCOUNTANT AND MARINE OFFICERS.

If you decide to be an Engineer Officer you go to the R.N. College, Keyham, as a Midshipman on completion of your cadet's time, whether you have entered the Navy through Dartmouth or a Public School. At Keyham your training is purely professional, and lasts three years and eight months. During this time you receive the pay of your rank at the same rate as Executive Officers, and are promoted to Sub-Lieutenant similarly to your contemporaries who are Executive Officers. Accelerated promotion to Lieutenant is gained by doing well.

On completing your training you start to draw the engineering rate of pay, and are appointed to a sea-going ship as one of her Engineer Officers. Thereafter your life is similar to other officers, save that there are a large number of shore appointments, such as the Engineer-in-Chief's Department at the Admiralty, and certain appointments in dockyards for which Engineer Officers are required, and so the percentage of time spent ashore is greater than for other officers.

If you enter as an Accountant Officer you spend six months under training in company with the other Special Entry Cadets, and are then appointed to a sea-going ship as one of her Accountant Officers. An important point to note is that instead of there being any cost to your parents for fees

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during your period of training you actually receive 4s. per day pay during this time.

Marine Officers enter between the ages of 18 and 19 years. On passing the entrance examination, which is the same as for the Army or Royal Air Force Cadets, you are appointed a Probationary 2nd-Lieutenant.

Your training is carried out at the Royal Marine Headquarters, the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, the Royal Marine Depot, Deal, in *H.M.S. Excellent* and *H.M.S. Vernon* (Naval Gunnery and Torpedo Schools) and at the Navigation School.

On passing these courses you are promoted to Probationary Lieutenant, and are then embarked as subaltern of the R.M. Detachment in one of H.M. ships.

On completion of six months afloat you are confirmed in the rank of Lieutenant. Promotion to the higher ranks is governed by seniority.

The expenses in the Royal Marine Corps are not heavy, and though a small private allowance is advisable at first, after a few years an officer can manage very comfortably on his pay.

An outfit allowance of £50 is granted to officers on promotion to Probationary Lieutenant.

Minor alterations in these schemes of training, age of entry, etc., for *all* branches are liable to take place from time to time, and the above remarks concerning the early career of officers give the general outline rather than exact details.

### I. CHAPLAINS AND INSTRUCTORS.

Apart from the categories of officers already mentioned, a limited number of Chaplains and Naval Instructors are wanted, the function of the latter being to teach cadets and junior officers.

In neither case though need the decision to enter the Navy be made until you are grown up, and have finished your school and University career.



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For its Chaplains and Instructors, as for all other officers, the Navy wants the best, because by their influence both can do much to build up a good tone throughout the Navy.

### *J. KIT, PAY, ETC.*

Detailed regulations on how to enter any branch of the Navy, kit required, pay and so forth, can be found in the Appendix to the Navy List, which is, in fact, a mine of information and well worth buying if you are thinking of the Navy as a career. Full information regarding entry, etc., can be obtained by application in writing to "The Secretary of the Admiralty, Whitehall."

### *K. CONCLUSION.*

You can see, therefore, that life in the Navy consists of team work. Just as the different players in a game have their own special places in the field, so the different types of officers all have their own special duties to perform. And, as in a team, only by loyal co-operation can an efficient and happy ship be created.

In conclusion, remember that during the ages the foundations of the Empire have been laid, built upon and finally consolidated by the Navy.

From our insular position and the world-wide nature of our Empire, sea power is the essence of our security. The Navy is also undoubtedly the greatest factor for peace in the world, though it can only remain so as long as it is of sufficient strength.

Therefore, in choosing your profession, remember there is none more honourable or responsible, than to quote the Articles of War which date from Queen Elizabeth's time, "The Navy, whereon under the good providence of God the wealth, safety and strength of the Kingdom chiefly depend."

# The Army

AUTHENTICATED AND APPROVED

BY

THE SECRETARY OF STATE FOR WAR.

AS A COMMISSIONED OFFICER.

ALL careers have their advantages and disadvantages, nor is it easy in the abstract to strike a balance, because what are regarded as advantages by one assume the aspect of disadvantages to another, and *vice versa*.

It may at the outset quite frankly be said that the Army must be a career of choice ; a square peg in a round hole is nowhere more ill at ease than in the Army. The object of this article is to give a somewhat more informed idea of what is involved in the choice of the Army as a career than is generally current, and to show that in some respects the peg may be less square or the hole less round than may, at first sight, be anticipated.

In the choice of a career, as in so many other things, it frequently saves time and trouble to know the worst at the beginning, and therefore it is not inappropriate to state at the outset the disadvantages of an officer's life.

In the first place, if anyone desires large financial rewards he had better avoid not only the Army but all other Government service. On the other hand, it is only right to say that though he is not likely to make money he is equally unlikely to lose it.

In the second place, if the would-be candidate for His Majesty's Commission has a rooted dislike to all forms of



discipline, by this is not meant the normal human aversion that arises occasionally in every manly breast from doing what we don't want to do, but a congenital and extreme individualism, that impels one to refrain from doing even what one may want to, simply on the ground that one has been told to do it, then such a candidate had probably better refrain from the Army, even though life in the Army may be the one hope for his immortal soul.

Thirdly, if the young man has an aversion to travelling, if he likes to stay in one place gathering moss, and is immune from the "wanderlust" microbe, then the Army is no place for him.

It is hoped that by this time the undesirable candidate has been thoroughly deterred from all thoughts of a military career, and we may therefore turn to the other side of the picture.

As has been said, the Army is not a money-making profession, but it is a profession which gives the officer an adequate and not ungenerous salary in return for the services he renders. The details of remuneration are accessible to everyone. Broadly speaking, including allowances (or the value of issues in kind), they range from about £269 for an unmarried 2nd-Lieutenant; £306 for a Lieutenant (£357 after seven years' service); £447 for a Captain (£532 after fifteen years' service); £655 for a Major; to £1,139 for a Lieutenant-Colonel, with higher rates for allowances in every case for those married officers who are 30 years of age or over. It must also be realised that a pension is assured in the event of retirement after only fifteen years' service.

There is, however, one consideration that is too frequently lost sight of. Many a young officer is living on his pay from the moment he joins the Army, *i.e.* at the age of 19 he becomes self-supporting. A candidate for most of the other professions either has to spend three or four years at a University, where instead of earning £300 a year he costs probably £400, and at the end of it is lucky if he can start by earning what his

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brother in the Army has already been earning for four years, or he has to spend an equal or greater number of years serving some form of apprenticeship for his profession, during which he has to be supported in whole or in part by his parents. The Army is undoubtedly the cheapest profession, from the parental point of view, that exists to-day. The critic will, of course, point out that in point of fact no officer can live on his pay in an expensive regiment. That, of course, is perfectly true; the answer is that, in the first place, he need not join an expensive regiment, and in the second place, an expensive life is expensive anywhere. One gets nothing for nothing in this world, but it is probable that one can get more for sixpence in the Army than one can in civil life.

As regards the cost of Sandhurst or Woolwich, parents must remember that this cost compares very favourably with the cost of their sons continuing at a Public School or going to a University. Moreover, the scale of fees is very much smaller when the boy's father is, or was, an officer in any arm of the Service, or a private, airman, or seaman. The fees range from £20 for the sons of an officer, sailor, marine, soldier, or airman who has died whilst on full pay, half pay or pension, and whose family has been left in pecuniary distress, to £105 for the son of a General, Admiral, or Air-Chief-Marshal, and £200 for the son of a private gentleman. King's Cadets are admitted free, and are granted an educational allowance of £40 a year between the ages of 13 and 18. These King's Cadets are appointed from sons of officers of the Navy, Army and Air Force, and permanent military forces of the Overseas Dominions and Colonies, who have fallen in action, or died of wounds or of disease contracted on service abroad, and have left their families in reduced circumstances.

Prize Cadetships, which are given to those who pass in highest on the Entrance Examination, entitle the holder to a reduction of the fee from £200 to £105 a year, and also a reduction of the usual charges for uniform and books, which normally amount to £90 at Woolwich and £70 at Sandhurst.



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There are also scholarships available for officers appointed to commissions to the Regular Army from Woolwich and Sandhurst. These awards were instituted by the Army Council in 1924, when the grant each half-year of eleven scholarships of the annual value of £50, tenable for five years, was sanctioned. Of these scholarships three go to cadets from Woolwich, six to cadets from Sandhurst and two to University candidates. The recipients from Woolwich and Sandhurst are the cadets who are awarded the Sword of Honour, those who pass out with the highest marks, and the next most deserving on grounds of all-round efficiency. Moreover, a cadet who passes out of Woolwich and obtains a commission in the Royal Engineers, enjoys a still further opportunity of completing his academic education at the expense of the State. After being gazetted, he is given a postgraduate course at the School of Military Engineering at Chatham, and at Cambridge University, for a period of nearly three years, the fees at the University being borne by Army funds.

Enough has been said on the inevitable question of money. To sum up, it may truthfully be said that no one who is determined to hold His Majesty's Commission need in these days be prevented from so doing because he has no private means, although for an officer to live on his pay during his first three years' service, undoubtedly requires the exercise of rigid economy and some degree of self-denial. If his parents can give him a small allowance, say £50 or £100 a year, it will certainly enable him to have a more pleasant life.

Discipline also, if viewed in certain lights, may be found to possess attractions. Man has been described with truth as a social animal. Even the most intense individualist is apt, if deprived of all social ties, to find that such life, if nowadays no longer "nasty, brutish and short" is profoundly unsatisfying. There is an essential truth in the words, "Whose service is perfect freedom." For many people, perhaps for all, the fullest self-realisation is only possible when the

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individual is an integral part of a social organism greater than himself, and subservient to its laws and discipline.

The Army provides such an organism of a particularly stimulating and attractive kind. The pill of discipline is gilded with the honey of romance. Regulations there are, it is true, but they are the King's Regulations. Tradition of the Army, tradition of the regiment, binds all together in glorious fealty. It is worth something in life to have something bigger than oneself for which to work and live; to feel that one's duty is to keep unstained, and, if fate sends the occasion, to add fresh lustre to the escutcheon of a regiment whose history is one long untarnished scroll of glory. Discipline is sometimes irritating, but it has its compensations, and without it no form of society can exist.

The greatest attraction of the Army is probably that, for a young man not too well endowed with this world's goods, it provides an unrivalled opportunity for travelling, adventure and sport. In the majority of professions the means and opportunity of seeing the world come too late, if at all. Life is short and the world is wide. He who would know the cities and races of men, and would see strange lands under strange skies, should do so young. To the young they can give so much more in the way of experience and enjoyment than to the weary globe trotter on retirement, who probably does not go to the places he always wanted to see, because his health won't stand the heat or the cold, or because his imaginative faculties have atrophied, or because, worst of all, he fears that they haven't atrophied, and that he will merely add to his store of regrets for what he has missed in life. It may be tedious to the Colonel's friends to hear the oft-reiterated story of the demise of the celebrated tiger, but, after all, the Colonel did shoot the tiger, whereas his friends have probably never had an opportunity of shooting any carnivora larger than a stoat. If any boy can read Colonel John Buchan's story "*Across the Roof of the World*" in his *Book of Escapes and Hurried Journeys* and remain unmoved by it, the Army is



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no place for him. The Army provides frequent opportunities for adventures which are dangerous, difficult, uncomfortable to the highest degree, and quite unremunerative. Sport in all its various forms is easily accessible to the young officer. Apart from the usual facilities for regimental cricket, football, etc., arrangements are made whereby he can use Army horses for hunting, and, if he is in the Cavalry or Artillery, for polo, at an extraordinarily low figure. There are few stations abroad where he cannot get good shooting, including big game shooting, if he chooses to utilise his leave in this way. India, of course, is an inexhaustible happy hunting ground for the sportsman.

An idea is apt to prevail that life in the Army is limited in its interests, and affords little scope for the man for whom the somewhat restricted activities of regimental life are not sufficient. In point of fact nothing is farther from the truth. The Army is a microcosm, and there is practically no activity of civil life which does not possess to some degree its counterpart in the Army. If an officer is interested in business administration the "Q" staff affords him an ample opportunity of developing his bent. If he wishes to study the actions and reactions of world politics, he has better opportunities for so doing as an officer of the General Staff than in almost any other profession. Encouragement and facilities are given to the officer to study modern languages, and awards are made to those who qualify as interpreters. Two officers annually are seconded to Japan for three years to study the Japanese language, and one officer a year to China to learn Chinese. While so seconded these officers receive the full pay of their rank, plus a special consolidated allowance. If an officer wishes to specialise in various branches of engineering work or scientific research, a path is open to him, and he is given every opportunity to develop his natural talents in the appropriate direction. The increasing application of scientific and mechanical resources to the theory and practice of war is providing more and more opportunities for the technical man.

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An attempt has been made to give some idea of the advantages of the Army as a career, and it only remains in conclusion to give a brief description of the various methods of obtaining a commission. Full details on this matter can always be obtained by reference to the War Office.

The normal method of obtaining a commission is by passing through either the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. The former establishment provides for candidates for the Cavalry, Infantry, Royal Army Service Corps and Royal Tank Corps; the latter for those who wish to enter the Royal Artillery, the Royal Engineers or the Royal Corps of Signals. Commissions may also be obtained through recognised Universities to the extent of 100 candidates a year. The minimum academic qualifications required of a University candidate is a Pass Degree; a University Degree entitles to seniority, the candidates being given an antedate, and the higher the degree the greater the antedate. The seniority lost through entering the Army at a later age than the Sandhurst or Woolwich Cadet can thus be largely discounted by a good degree.

Commissions in the Regular Army may also be obtained through the commissioned ranks of the Territorial Army and the Supplementary Reserve, and also through the Royal Military College, Kingston, Canada, and various overseas Universities; while it is open to men serving in the ranks to be selected for a Cadet Course at the Royal Military College, with a view to being commissioned, subsequently, in the Cavalry, Infantry, Tank Corps, or Royal Army Service Corps.

### IN THE RANKS.

There was a time in the history of the British Army when the life of a youth who had taken what was known as the "King's Shilling" was far from enviable, and when his occupation was of the kind that is contemptuously termed a "blind alley one," or one which led at best to a needy and



comfortless existence as an aged pensioner. That was a legacy from the days of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, when, it is not too much to say, a regiment was virtually the property of the Colonel, and when even recruiting was a purely regimental matter, to be carried out in all respects as the Colonel thought fit. Every item of the regiment's cost, except the musket and part of the equipment, was defrayed from the regimental pay list, and the Colonel could stop 2d. a day from a man's pay for the purpose of supplying clothing, and make what profit he could out of the deal, and finally, he could even train his men as he chose. But probably the worst feature of a soldier's life a century ago was that he was always supposed to be enlisted for life, and this was generally interpreted, in fact, to mean that he should be kept with the colours as long as he could put one foot before the other. Later, the term of his martial existence was taken to be twenty-one years, after which he became eligible for a pension at Chelsea Hospital. In short, glory was all that a youth who entered the Army was supposed to value, and it was small wonder that he quickly became the traditional fighting automaton, and if not "bearded like a pard," at all events uncouth and "full of strange oaths." Look, too, at the manner of his recruiting in the "good old days": specious appeals to his love of adventure, or crude invitations to rid himself, by joining the Army, of entanglements with the fair sex.

A glance at the posters in any recruiting office of to-day will give a youth all the information as to pay and prospects he may wish, and so far from the Army of to-day being a refuge for the idle and thriftless, it has become increasingly difficult for any but the right kind to be finally accepted. This is so because the upkeep of the individual soldier is expensive, and it is a considerable loss to the State to take a boy for training as a soldier craftsman, or to enlist a youth as a recruit and to incur all the expense of educating, equipping and training him if he proves a failure as a soldier.

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If the daily existence in the Army as it is to-day be compared with what it was even in the seventies of last century, as described by Field-Marshal Sir William Robertson in his recently published autobiography, *From Private to Field-Marshal*, we shall see how greatly the position of soldiers has improved; and we shall also realise why, so far from offering a boy a merely "blind alley" occupation, in which one problematic "crowded hour of glorious life" was his only reward, it now gives him every opportunity of learning a useful trade, and so fits him at the end of his "colour service" to follow a calling in civil life.

Until quite recently a soldier's food, or that part of it which figured in the free ration, consisted of one pound of bread and three-quarters of a pound of meat. That was all. Groceries, vegetables, tea and all other requirements had to be paid for by the soldier, from whose pay of 1s. 2d. a day a daily deduction was made to meet the cost. Nowadays the uncommuted ration, that is, food issued in kind, comprises a long list of wholesome articles, and the commuted ration, i.e. a money allowance expendable on such items as jam, cheese, bacon, condiments, etc., involves no deduction from his pay. But it is not in the mere list of food articles that his lot has improved, it is in the variety of his food and the manner in which it is served that affords so striking a contrast with times gone by. The old regulation meals were coffee and bread for breakfast, meat and potatoes for dinner, and tea and bread at tea-time. If a soldier wished for supper or anything beyond dry bread for breakfast and tea he had to buy it himself from the barrack canteen. To-day, the whole dietary of the soldier is most carefully thought out, and the food is ample in quantity, varied in nature and of first-rate quality.

To such an extent was the soldier of, say, the period 1877 mulcted for his daily food and washing and for the upkeep of articles of uniform, that of his 1s. 2d. a day about 8d. went in food and most of the remaining 6d. on the latter items.



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The injustice of this arrangement led to the altruistic regulation that in no case should the soldier receive, after these compulsory stoppages, less than a penny a day !

The modern soldier, so far from being subjected to such extortion, has "all found," and from the first day he enters the Army finds himself in receipt of 14s. a week pocket money, to spend how he will. If he wishes to spend it in the canteen, he will find that canteen in any part of the world he may be stationed, organised (under a body known as the Navy, Army and Air Force Institutes) for his benefit, so as to secure for him at a fair price the things he may require. If he wishes to assist his parents, special arrangements exist whereby he can make voluntary allotments of a portion of his pay to his home.

In every sphere of the modern soldier's life, whether equipment, education, training, food, sport, the general principles of organisation are laid down and co-ordinated by the highest military authorities, whose sole object is to produce not merely an Army but a highly articulated military organism, composed of efficient, intelligent and contented individuals, each one of whom plays an intelligent part in the functioning of the whole.

In short, the attractions which a soldier's life has always held out to boys of adventurous natures, and of a mind to know something of the great world lying outside the confines of their own cramped parishes, remain ; but the disadvantages have gone. The "raw" recruit, whose existence in civil life may have been harsh through straitened circumstances, and especially through the distress which ordinarily follows a great war, will find, through the medium of physical training, good food, general education and sport, that life opens out new possibilities of which, in his former circumstances, he realised nothing. If he be ambitious and industrious, giving whole-hearted attention to his military duties and educational training, he will secure promotion, and will be able to reach Matriculation Standard by obtaining what is known in the Army as a Special Certificate of Education. At the present

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day hundreds of young soldiers are now going beyond the First Class Certificate (Map-reading, English, Geography and Mathematics), and winning this Special Certificate, because they know that if they are otherwise efficient soldiers, and reveal to their superior officers some of the qualities of leadership, they may be recommended for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst. At present, a First Class Certificate is sufficient for this honour, but other things being equal, preference would be given to a soldier in possession of the Special Certificate.

In addition to the advancement open to him in the Army, every possible opportunity is given the soldier to acquire a vocation to which he can apply himself on return to civil life. The most deserving and efficient undergo an intensive course of six months' duration in their selected trades at Army Vocational Training Centres immediately before the termination of their "colour service," and every effort is made, with considerable success, so far, to find civil employment for them.

The Army of to-day makes an appeal not only to those who seek adventure, and the knowledge of strange lands and cities. To any boy of a mechanical turn of mind, any boy who, for example, is fond of wireless or anything appertaining to telegraphy, or whose natural aptitude is in the direction of engineering, a promising field is open in the Army. For in no way does a modern Army differ more from the pre-war armies than in the development of its technical requirements. Over and above our infantrymen and cavalrymen, there is an equally large number of soldiers who are classed as surveyors, draughtsmen, electricians, wireless operators, fitters, wheelwrights, carpenters, painters, dental mechanics, pharmacists, dispensers, X-ray attendants, and many others with the special qualifications of craftsmen. Boys who can qualify in a simple competitive examination embracing a test in Arithmetic, Algebra, and the English Language, and in the well-known facts in British History and Geography, which is held three times a year in various centres throughout the



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country, may be accepted for training in certain of these crafts with a view to their eventually passing into one or other of the technical corps, such as the Royal Engineers, Royal Army Ordnance Corps, and Royal Army Service Corps, as fully-fledged soldier tradesmen, able to earn their own living at a special trade both in the Army and later, at the end of their service, in ordinary civil life.

The Boys' Technical School at Beachley, near Chepstow, will shortly comprise no fewer than 1,000 lads ranging in age from 14 to 17. In the admirable system of training there the aim of the authorities is to turn out intelligent and thinking apprentices, possessing a good general knowledge of the particular machinery within their sphere. The qualities in a boy which are most needful for getting on in this great Technical School are a high moral standard, sportsmanship in a true sense, *esprit de corps*, self-confidence, respect for superiors and discipline, and keenness for education. Already the type of boy who has been entering this School has shown the success of this experiment.

The course of training at this Technical School is for three years. The training is divided into trade groups of carpenters and joiners, electricians and fitters, and blacksmiths; and the work consists of general education, drill, physical training, workshop instruction, lectures and organised games. Mathematics, Drawing, Applied Mechanics, Chemistry, Electricity and Construction are included in the curriculum, as well as Map-reading and Imperial History.

It will at once be seen from the foregoing statement of work done that due weight is attached to the time-honoured aphorism about all work and no play. Sport and pastimes of a manly kind are part of the boys' ordinary life at the School; and the keenness with which the boys at Beachley enter into their recreation, the high tone of their sportsmanship and manners, and above all, the sense of discipline are an eloquent testimony to the sound and sympathetic principles on which their life in the School is organised.

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The Technical School at Beachley does not take all the candidates for training as Army craftsmen, for there is an equally large number spread over other schools at Gosport, Woolwich, Chatham and Catterick. In Woolwich the boy apprentices are trained as artificers for the Artillery; at Catterick as signallers; and at Gosport and Chatham for one or other of the very large number of trades required in the Royal Engineers.

An added attraction to this system of training is that, during the course, no cost falls on the parents, and each boy is paid a weekly wage besides having "all found." After passing his trade test and entering one or other of the technical corps, his full training as a tradesman and skilled worker is completed. For any boy who looks forward to filling a position of responsibility in his particular vocation there are fine opportunities for instruction in the principles involved in the use of tools and machines, book-keeping, simple accounting, and other branches of knowledge upon which efficiency and advancement depend. The training that a man receives in a technical branch of the Army is according to the most modern principles, and it should enable him readily to obtain employment on his return to civil life.

Probably there still lingers in the minds of many a belief that "soldiering" means a monotonous life in dingy barracks, a dreary round of drill and duty from "Réveillé" to "Lights Out," and no holidays. The very reverse is the fact. Every soldier has the advantage of healthy and comfortable surroundings. In all the barracks there are special dining halls, hot baths, reading and writing rooms. All regimental barracks have, in addition, recreation rooms with billiard and bagatelle tables, newspapers, indoor games and well-equipped libraries. Canteens fitted with grocery and coffee bars are also provided, and frequently there are evening concerts and other entertainments. Special opportunities are always given for physical training and sports and games. Each regimental barrack carries its fully-equipped gymnasium, with expert



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instructors ; in most there are five courts, and provision made wherever conditions permit for swimming and bathing. At nearly all stations cricket and football grounds are provided, and each squadron or company has its cricket and football teams ; and a glance at the Press reports of results show that the regimental teams are prominent in the football leagues and in the Army Cup matches. Athletic sports meetings are held periodically, at which valuable prizes may be won by the successful competitors. Finally, no soldier has to go without holidays. The civilian has often to content himself with a week or a fortnight a year, and in many cases he has to forgo his wages to obtain even this slender privilege. But the soldier can usually depend on having a month every year, during which time of furlough, as it is called, he receives not only his regular full pay, but an extra cash payment in lieu of rations ; and over and above this annual holiday any well-conducted soldier can get " passes " or leave of absence for short periods, and often for more than seven days. Perhaps the best argument in favour of military life is to take the average recruit on enlistment and after two or three years' service. The general improvement in physique, health, and mentality is, in the majority of cases, remarkable.

# The Royal Air Force

AUTHENTICATED AND APPROVED

BY

THE AIR MINISTRY.

**T**HE Royal Air Force offers a career to boys and young men which should appeal to all, however varied their views may be as to the kind of profession they wish to select.

In the first place, it affords the means of having the honour to serve one's King and country, which should be the aim and ambition of all.

It affords opportunities to see something of the world and of the British possessions beyond the seas. Although most of the Air Force personnel are employed in the British Isles, there are units in Egypt, Palestine, Iraq and India.

It enables those joining it to see something of the working of the other great fighting services, as, in addition to the important rôle of training for the defence of this country, the Royal Air Force co-operates with the Navy and Army both at home and overseas.

The commissioned ranks are filled principally with officers of the General Duties Branch, that is to say, those officers who are pilots; but their training is not confined to flying alone, and may include, in accordance with the suitability of the individual, wireless telegraphy and telephony, photography, armament, aerial gunnery, physical training, torpedo dropping, fleet spotting, fleet reconnaissance, deck flying, spotting for the Royal Artillery, reconnaissance work with the Army and Navy.

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At the present time there are two methods of obtaining a permanent commission in the General Duties Branch of the Royal Air Force :—

(i) Through the R.A.F. (Cadet) College at Cranwell for a permanent commission. The age at entry is from  $17\frac{1}{2}$  to  $19\frac{1}{2}$  years.

(ii) Through a recognised University for a permanent commission.

### THE CADET COLLEGE, CRANWELL.

(i) The Cadet College, Cranwell, corresponds to the military colleges at Woolwich and Sandhurst, and is administered solely by the Air Ministry.

The course lasts for two years, during which time cadets are taught to fly. All cadets who successfully pass out of Cranwell receive permanent commissions in the Royal Air Force, commencing with the rank of Pilot Officer, and then have before them definite careers.

### UNIVERSITY COMMISSIONS.

(ii) An unmarried University man under 25 years of age, having taken his degree after three years' residence, is eligible for recommendation by the Governing Body of a recognised University. He appears before a Selection Board and a Medical Board at the Air Ministry, and, if successful, is attached to a flying unit during the Long Vacation, where he receives a certain amount of air experience. After a period of six weeks, if favourably reported upon by the C.O. of the unit, he is granted a commission, continues his instruction at a flying training school, and is gazetted to the rank of Pilot Officer, with twelve months' seniority.

Officers of the General Duties Branch are all required to qualify as pilots and to keep themselves in flying practice, but they may afterwards specialise in technical subjects.



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It cannot be too strongly emphasised that the Royal Air Force offers a career to its permanent officers comparable in every way to the Army and Navy so far as conditions of services are concerned, and in certain respects more favourable than the two older services.

### ANCILLARY BRANCHES OF THE ROYAL AIR FORCE.

So far reference has been made solely to the General Duties Branch, but there are four other branches of the service which afford a career for those to whom flying does not make so strong an appeal. Officers of these branches need not qualify as pilots, though they may be called upon to fly as passengers if they are fit and their duties require it. These branches are :—

- (a) The Stores Branch.
- (b) The Accountant Branch.
- (c) The Medical Branch.
- (d) The Chaplains' Branch.

(a) The Stores Branch is entrusted with the care and issue of the various stores and raw material necessary for the upkeep of aircraft, motor vehicles, motor boats, and the multitude of articles which are required in connection with service aviation.

Though the life of the Stores' Officer is more sedentary than that of the officer engaged in flying, it attracts those to whom the handling and distribution of vast quantities and varieties of material make a special appeal.

Entry into the Stores Branch will normally be with a permanent commission, and the present regulations provide for the filling of vacancies in the Branch by the transfer of young officers of the General Duties Branch who have become permanently unfit for fully flying duties.

(b) The Accountant Branch of the Royal Air Force was instituted in 1921, to give effect to a decision that accountancy



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in the Royal Air Force should be decentralised to units. Under this system the Accountant Officer of a unit is responsible on the one hand to the Commanding Officer, and on the other direct to the Director of Accounts at the Air Ministry. He undertakes the whole accounting work of his unit, including both pay and stores accounting.

(c) The Royal Air Force offers a career for medical men<sup>1</sup> which should prove both attractive and interesting. The rates of pay and allowances are good, and a new field of scientific interest is opened up by the manifold problems which the circumstances of aviation produce. Questions connected with the physical and mental fitness for and reaction to the varied conditions under which flying personnel perform their duties provide much scope for research. The speed now attained by aeroplanes has opened up a completely new field of research in visual problems alone.

The world-wide distribution of Air Force units provides exceptional opportunities for investigation of problems of tropical disease. In this subject work done in the Royal Air Force Medical Service has already made an important contribution to the advance of medical knowledge in the particular case of sand-fly fever.

Opportunities for general medical and surgical work are to be found in the various R.A.F. hospitals.

Thus it will be seen that for a young man of adventurous spirit, keen on an open-air life and healthy pursuits and recreations, imbued with the curiosity to investigate the various medical problems which this new Service presents, a fascinating career is opened, more especially if he be of a type with hereditary Service traditions, or has a natural liking for the disciplined life of a Service.

(d) The Chaplains' Branch is administered on behalf of the Secretary of State for Air by the Air Member for Personnel.

<sup>1</sup> The conditions of service of medical officers are set out in Air Publication 953.

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The following bodies are recognised, and are under the control of their own senior Chaplain :—

Church of England ; Presbyterian ; Roman Catholic ; Wesleyan Methodist ; United Board (comprising Baptists, Congregational, Primitive and United Methodists).

The interests of members of the Jewish faith are looked after by the Senior Jewish Chaplain of the Army.

The present total number of Chaplains is thirty-two, of whom nine are serving abroad. Owing to so many Air Force Stations being comparatively small, and not warranting whole-time Chaplains, they are ministered to by *local* clergymen and ministers.

### SHORT SERVICE COMMISSIONS.

In addition to the aforementioned methods of entering the Royal Air Force, there is yet another scheme. A young man whose inclinations turn towards the air may not wish his final activities to be absorbed into the fighting forces, but may find in civil aviation or aeronautical engineering the career best suited to his talents.

Recognising this, and other advantages of a service character, the Air Ministry has put into operation a scheme of short service on the active list, followed by a period in the reserve.

What the Air Ministry first of all asks of candidates for these commissions is that they shall be absolutely fit from a medical point of view. They need not have private means, but a love of sport, though not essential, is a desirable qualification.

The Air Ministry supplies, upon request, the necessary forms of application. When these have been filled up and returned the candidate may be summoned for interview before a board of officers at the Air Ministry and, if accepted

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and passed as fit, instructed as to joining for duty at a flying training school. Normally the period between the acceptance of a candidate and his posting to a training school is from three weeks to three months.

Full details regarding the conditions of service of commissioned officers with the Royal Air Force are contained in Air Publication 1,100—*The Royal Air Force as a Career*—obtainable from H.M. Stationery Office at the following addresses: Adastral House, Kingsway, London, W.C. 2; 28 Abingdon Street, London, S.W. 1; York Street, Manchester; 1 St. Andrew's Crescent, Cardiff; 120 George Street, Edinburgh; or through any bookseller.



# The Metropolitan Police

BY

BRIGADIER-GENERAL SIR W. T. F. HORWOOD, K.C.B., D.S.O.,  
*Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis.*

## I.

THE "London" for which the Metropolitan Police Force is responsible extends from Staines to Erith, and from Potter's Bar to Epsom. It comprises an area of about 700 square miles, and contains over 7,000,000 people. Into its docks are poured the vast quantities of merchandise, the treasures of East and West are offered for sale in its streets, irreplaceable works of art are fearlessly displayed in its museums and picture galleries, whilst among its inhabitants are many private individuals whose possessions rival in value the proverbial "King's Ransom."

To this treasure house the criminal turns with eagerness and hope. If strength or brain has won such wealth, may not violence and cunning be similarly rewarded?

To protect London, but more especially that every citizen may pass "on his lawful occasion" in peace and safety, a force of over 20,000 police is employed, whose business it is to "keep watch and ward" unceasingly. And so unbroken is the peace of the Metropolis, so accustomed are its people to the most absolute freedom, that any unexpected interference with their movements or their personal liberty, however slight, is a matter for profound astonishment. In the case of the unreflecting such interference may result in a complaint in the form of a letter to a favourite newspaper, or may even acquire the dignity of a question in Parliament.

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London's police is regarded as the premier force of the world. It maintains its position not by ruthlessness, as in some forces, but by its efficiency. Its power over the corporate life of the Metropolis is not terrorist, but is due to the respect in which it is held. Not only are the methods of the Metropolitan Police adopted, generally, abroad, but the officers themselves are frequently loaned, or transferred, to other countries in order to organise Police Forces which may have failed to control the criminal element or win the respect of the peoples concerned.

What of the future? Is the profession of the policeman likely to be superseded? Will some specific from Geneva put a new and different heart in London's criminal classes, so that only the control of traffic shall fall upon the police? And shall that traffic control be reduced to a mechanical tower device imported from New York or Chicago? All history teaches the contrary. The more civilised a nation becomes, the more complex its life, the greater is the call for police officers, whose numbers must keep abreast of the new and additional duties imposed upon them. Moreover, a high proportion of the members of the Force must out-distance in intelligence and in ability the criminal types which that civilisation itself produces.

For these reasons the Metropolitan Police Force offers a wonderful future to the better type of young Englishmen. Its officers are paid on a liberal scale. The possibilities of promotion for all are unequalled in any other similar profession. Every opportunity is given to develop the mind and the body, and provision is made not only for ill-health, but for all those accidents which, overtaking a man in the pursuit of his profession, in every other calling spell disaster to his dependants.

What sort of man do we want for the Metropolitan Police?

“They take him from the village and the plough,  
And dress him up in uniform so neat!”

may have been true of the old-time Army recruit, but it is inadequate if applied to the Metropolitan Police. It is, of course, generally understood that only strong, active, intelligent



men are considered. But we want more than this, and the pay and prospects of the Metropolitan Police have been improved in order that the right men may be attracted to our ranks. We must have men of character, with that conception of duty which will make them not only resolute in danger, but will keep them honest in the abounding temptations of a policeman's life. Can we entrust the safety of London, its wealth, the care of its children and its infirm, the control of its criminals to any lower type? And not only are these normal police duties to be performed, but there is given to the Metropolitan Police the added honour of the protection of the Royal Family and of the Cabinet, including personal attendance on the Sovereign.

#### PAY AND PROSPECTS.

The question which every intelligent man asks himself in selecting a career is, "What do I get out of it—now, and in the future?"

The Metropolitan Police Force offers the following:—

##### *Rates of Pay, Uniform Branch.*

Constables .. ..	70s. to 90s. per week.
Sergeants .. ..	100s. to 120s. per week.
Inspectors .. ..	125s. to 193s. per week.
Superintendents ..	£550 to £700 per annum.

Quarters are provided whenever possible, and when they are not available monetary assistance is given towards payment of rent.

Officers appointed for duty with the Criminal Investigation Department receive weekly allowances, according to rank, in addition to the rates of pay shown.

The accepted candidate, before being appointed as a constable, undergoes a course of training in a preparatory class for a period of not less than nine weeks, during which time he resides at the Section House, and receives pay at the rate of



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60s. per week. On joining the Force he receives 70s. per week.

In what other profession is a man paid 60s. a week whilst being tested as to his fitness for the job he seeks ?

Athletic amusements of all kinds are encouraged, and every assistance is given to the men to take an active part in these pursuits. Libraries, reading rooms, recreation and billiard rooms are provided in the various stations, and equipped with every necessity, at no cost to the men. Bands have been established in many of the divisions, and men who have musical abilities can find scope for their development and enjoyment. Free medical attendance is provided for the whole of the Force, and convalescent homes exist for the treatment of men recovering from serious diseases. The Metropolitan and City Police Orphanage provides for the children of men who die in the service. There is a well-endowed fund for the relief of cases of distress arising from illness or domestic trouble, and there is also a fund from which grants are made to widows in case of need, over and above any pension or gratuities to which they may be entitled from the Police Fund.

### *Promotion.*

The prospects of advancement for men who show the necessary aptitude for the work are extremely good. Promotion for such men is rapid, enabling them to secure a good position after comparatively short service.

The officers of the Force up to the rank of Chief Constable are selected, without exception, from among the men themselves. It may be of interest to know that four out of the six Chief Constables at present serving have risen from the ranks, whilst an Assistant Commissioner (Sir James Olive, K.B.E.) was once a Police Constable, having passed through each successive rank until he has reached a position second only to that of the Commissioner himself.

It will be seen that the Service thus provides every

intelligent man, who is anxious to get on, with unequalled opportunities for improving his position, and enables him to provide adequately for the responsibilities connected with the establishment of a home in London.

### *Pension.*

In addition to the advantages above enumerated, there is a liberal pension given sufficiently early in life to enable it to be enjoyed whilst the recipient is still in his prime. In fact, pensions for life are granted to all men qualifying on a more liberal scale and enjoyable at an earlier age than can be obtained in any other service. The following represent the maximum pensions which are given :—

<i>Rank.</i>				<i>Amount of Pension.</i>			
				£	s.	d.	
Constable	..	..	..	164	13	4	per annum.
Sergeant	..	..	..	195	0	0	..
Station Sergeant	..	..	..	208	0	0	..
Inspector	..	..	..	251	6	8	..
Sub-Divisional Inspector	..	..	..	280	16	0	..
Chief Inspector	..	..	..	334	10	8	..
Superintendent	..	..	..	466	13	4	..

The greatest advantage of the pension scale is that it absolutely secures an adequate provision for life for any man who may be unfitted for work as the result of injury arising in, or in consequence of, the execution of his duty as a policeman. From the moment a man becomes a Constable he is so protected. There is no limit of time before a pension can be given in such cases. If a Constable should be injured on duty and incapacitated in even the first week of his service, he would receive a pension for the rest of his life proportionate to the nature of the injury and the degree of disablement. In the event of any officer losing his life as the result of an injury on duty his widow receives a pension, and allowances



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are made to his children until they are 16 years of age. A pension is granted to widows of all men who die from any cause, at any time after the completion of 5 years' service in the Force, or after being pensioned from the Force.

### THE MEN REQUIRED.

A candidate for the Metropolitan Police must be a British subject and of pure British descent, over 20 and under 27 years of age, stand five feet nine inches clear without shoes or stockings, able to read and write, and must show reasonable proficiency in writing from dictation and simple arithmetic. He must, in addition, possess a strong constitution, be physically equal to the performance of police duty, be free from any bodily complaint, and be of unblemished character.

## II.

### "MY NEIGHBOUR AS MYSELF."

No man can join the Metropolitan Police Force and remain unaffected in his personal habits and in his outlook on life.

The Constable - to - be enters a condition of life where the recognition of authority is all-important. Order and orderliness are stamped upon every part of the Police machine, and the eagerness with which men, whose lives hitherto may have been aimless, if not chaotic, respond to this change is no small tribute to the administration of the Force. The Constable must be given a free hand in his work if he is to be equal to the emergencies with which he is daily confronted, but all his duties are covered by definite direction. From the first day of service he is aware that his surroundings bear an ordered relation to each other and to himself. He becomes accustomed to order and, by easy stages, obedience to authority becomes a physical habit, if not an attitude of mind.

The influence which brings about this change in the life of the young Constable is "discipline" — a word which is



unpopular in some quarters. But "discipline" is much wronged—it is not, and may never involve, punishment in any shape or form; its operation is uniformly in the direction of the well-being of the Force; it is as much an agency for securing reward for good service as for restraining a man who does wrong, because discipline seeks primarily the improvement of the man and, through him, of the Force itself. If at any time, through weakness or neglect, the discipline of the Force may be impaired, with it will decline, inevitably and automatically, the efficiency of the Force and the self-respect of the men.

But discipline makes demands upon us all. We are citizens of the greatest city in the world, and our responsibilities keep step with our privileges. The self-control which every decent Londoner exercises—motorist or pedestrian, shop-keeper or purchaser, employer or workman—is nothing more than a civic discipline, without which the life of London would come to a standstill. The ease with which London's millions travel and carry on their daily occupation is largely due to the recognition by all classes that life is only possible when certain fundamental rules of conduct are observed. The self-discipline which Londoners observe is the expression of that deference to law and order which stamps an Englishman. An Assistant Secretary of State in Hungary, discussing international police problems, remarked, some time before the War: "You Anglo-Saxons have learnt the lesson of self-control: our people have not." The national traits are reflected in the policeman's general bearing and attitude to the public.

What would London be like if only 1 per cent. of the Force on duty in the streets became "hot and bothered" when faced with the daily or hourly emergency? How many Londoners have ever seen more than the end of the leather strap of the policeman's truncheon?

The contribution of the Metropolitan Police Officer to the common weal is no mean one. For to-day is characterised by a restlessness and, in some quarters, an insubordination to authority, unknown before the War. It follows that a greater

responsibility than ever rests on the Police, because the well-disciplined Constable is the visible expression, as well as the active exponent, of that larger and wider civic discipline demanded from us all. The Constable works his beat as courteous and good-tempered in the squalid courts of the East End as in the crowded streets of the West. He stands alone, unarmed and unsupported, in districts where hostility to any form of restraint is thinly veiled. He is subject more than most public servants to temptation—temptation all the more subtle because most commonly presented as an expression of friendliness and good-fellowship.

The extent to which the police officer assists the poor or helpless is not generally known. In many of the poor districts the Police, in their own time, and often with the expenditure of a great deal of labour and money, organise concerts and other functions to assist financially the unemployed or to brighten the lot of poor children who live in their district. Many a child's recollection of Christmas is fixed by the invitation given to the Christmas-tree provided by the Police of their district. The attitude of the poorer classes to the Police is exemplified in the absence of that disorder which arises in many continental cities in connection with unemployment and where the problem is less acute than with us. From one division of the East End a strong contingent of unemployed proposed to march to Hyde Park, and the shop-keepers on the line of route were apprehensive as to the conduct of the demonstrators. The air was full of rumour that looting, and even worse, might happen; but the matter was settled out of hand by the leaders of the unemployed, who went to the Superintendent of the division and said: "Send our own coppers with us, Guv 'nor, and there will be no trouble."

Again, a syndicate of film producers acquired a derelict house in a poor part of the West of London in order to construct a film. They proposed to set fire to the building, and arrangements had been made by the syndicate with local councils for the local fire brigades to turn out; every detail



was to be as realistic as possible. The film producers were acquainted by the Police, however, that if a display were attempted they would take action. Every conceivable step was taken to force our hand. The syndicate was furious at what was termed "Police obstruction," and the project was not abandoned until it was realised that the strongest pressure which could be brought to bear would be unavailing. Had this display been permitted, it is practically certain that out of the hundreds of children who would have been attracted, some would have been knocked down and possibly injured in racing across the busy thoroughfares adjacent to the scene of the fire. Moreover, alarm and distress of mind would have been conveyed to the inhabitants of a populous but poor district who could not have known that the fire was staged. The stand taken by the Police in this matter, as in many similar of which the public hear nothing, was purely out of consideration for public safety and the common good.

Some idea of the social value of the police officer can be gathered from many of the poorer districts in London at mid-day, or in the afternoon, when the children come out of school. They dare not cross the road unaided, but stand waiting to catch the eye of the policeman. The moment the traffic is held up for the children to cross there is a race to be first to seize his hand and to be escorted personally by him to the other side of the road. The officers, old or young, who do such work do not act in a sheepish, stupid manner, but regard it as their contribution to the common good, and neither feel nor suffer any loss of dignity in so doing.

How often one sees an elderly or infirm person, before forsaking the safety of the footway, signalling to the policeman on traffic point duty, in order that he or she may cross the road. The police officer holds up all London's traffic at that particular spot in order that, with composure and without undue haste, the pedestrian may cross over. And all concerned—the policeman, the pedestrian and even the motorist—accept such a state of things as right and proper.



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The rôle played by the police constable is to preserve the amenities of common life for the enjoyment of all and sundry, irrespective of rank or condition. He plays a part in civic life over and above that for which he is paid ; he does it willingly and without ostentation, because—and all London understands the term—he is a “decent fellow.”

# The Civil Service

## (a) ADMINISTRATIVE

BY

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THE Civil Service is a profession in the same way as the Army or the Navy is a profession. It has its rank and file of persons engaged in manual or routine duties, and its minor officers who supervise and direct their work as do non-commissioned officers in the Army: but, like the Army, it requires for its organisation and the control of its operations higher officers whose qualifications and responsibilities now give them a high place among the professions.

Up to the middle of the last century the Civil Service was not generally regarded as a profession, and it was certainly not an open profession. The number of the higher officers was small—a few capable permanent men to advise Secretaries of State and other Ministers, and a somewhat larger number in administrative control of such services as the collection of revenue and the post office: and their appointment was a matter of patronage—in the gift of individual ministers and in practice restricted to a particular class of society. No one could regard a body of men recruited on this system as constituting an open and self-contained profession.

But a change became necessary under modern conditions. During the nineteenth century the State began to develop into an organisation which not only seeks to secure the safety



and health of the nation, but assists and controls many of its activities, and in some important matters provides the essentials for its corporate existence ; and the growth of that organisation necessarily demanded the provision of a considerable body of expert administrators to direct and regulate the various branches of its working. Inevitably the doors of the Civil Service were thrown open to qualified men of all classes, and its higher ranks became a profession in the full sense of the term—as open to ability as Law, Medicine or the Church. The change was accomplished by the general acceptance of the principle of selection by merit, and by the gradual introduction (as the result mainly of the efforts of four men, Sir Charles Trevelyan, Sir Stafford Northcote, Lord Macaulay and Mr. Gladstone) of open competition as the best available test of merit and the only one which would end the old system of patronage.

In the higher staff of the Civil Service as now constituted there is a broad distinction between two groups, the administrative officers and the technical experts, including in the latter term legal and medical, as well as scientific and engineering officers.

With the technical class, important as are their functions, we are not concerned here. They are drawn from, and remain members of, other professions. Medical posts are filled by qualified men, legal posts by barristers or solicitors, and the posts of engineers, chemists, physiologists, etc., by men who have the appropriate technical training and experience. The holders of such posts entered their several professions by the ordinary gateway, and employment by the State was one of the possible careers the profession offered—never the most lucrative, but capable nevertheless of attracting able men. When they have entered the Civil Service their work differs widely from that of the administrative class, though they are united to them by the bond of common service to the State, and by the acceptance of those conditions on which the State employs all its servants.

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Here we are concerned only with those administrative officers who, from the outset, choose the service of the State as their career for life. I propose to say something of the mode of admission to the higher Civil Service, of its remuneration, of the nature of its work, and of its incidental advantages and disadvantages.

Admission to the administrative staff of the Civil Service is partly by promotion from the lower ranks, but mainly by open competition among men who have taken honours at the Universities or possess equivalent educational qualifications.<sup>1</sup> No one pretends that an examination can be an absolute test of merit; but the examination can be, and is, so framed as to be a good test of general intelligence, and of some at least of the qualities required in the Civil Service, and it has the essential advantage of excluding all possibility of favouritism and jobbery.

The best preparation for administrative work is a broad basis of general education, combined with a high degree of proficiency in some special subject or subjects. There is no "mystery" in the Civil Service such as, in the imagination of the Solicitor-General, "might in the hands of experts . . . reach the stage of bureaucracy and virtually dethrone Parliamentary self-government!" Administrative work does not require even such technical education as is necessary for the "mysteries" of Law and Medicine. It needs sound judgment and common sense, qualities that cannot be imparted by any scheme of education; and it needs also an educational basis, which consists partly of general knowledge of men and

<sup>1</sup> Administrative posts have, on rare occasions, been filled by the transfer of technical officers who have acquired administrative experience in their technical posts. Such appointments have, however, the double disadvantage of interfering with promotion on the administrative side, and of depriving the technical branch of possibly its ablest member. The Government must also hold in reserve the power to appoint men from outside to the higher posts; but such appointments can only be justified in exceptional circumstances. They are now rare, and likely to become rarer.



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things, partly of special knowledge of the particular branch or branches of human activity with which the administration has to deal. The last can be acquired only in actual practice ; but the candidate for administrative work must be prepared to show, not only general intelligence and a well-informed mind, but also a capacity for thoroughly mastering any special subject to which he may devote himself.

The Oxford honours degree in "Greats" may, perhaps, be taken as typical of the nature and standard of the education required, but the system of examination is so constructed as to give equal opportunities to all Universities and to all their courses of study. There are compulsory subjects which test the candidate's general intelligence, his knowledge of the English language and ability to write it : and there is a wide range of optional subjects, including English Literature, English and European History, Economics, Political Theory, Law, Philosophy, Mathematics (Pure and Applied), Sciences (Astronomy, Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Geology, Physiology, Zoology, etc.), Engineering, Agriculture, the Latin Language and Roman Civilisation, the Greek Language and Civilisation, and the chief Modern Languages and civilizations, French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Arabic, and Persian ; but the number of optional subjects which a candidate may take is limited to a few, and in these a very high standard is required.

During the war, while men who in the ordinary course would have competed were serving in the military forces, entry to the permanent Civil Service was closed and the competitions discontinued ; and after the war vacancies were filled by men with war service whose previous school or college record showed them to be of the stamp who would have been likely, in normal conditions, to have proved successful competitors. The selection was made by an independent committee, who examined the records of candidates and interviewed them personally, and the men appointed proved, in general, equal in ability to their predecessors, while many of them were older and more mature.



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Seven years after the end of the war open competitions have been resumed, and the scheme of examination remains in essentials as before the war, except in one point. Experience having shown the great value of the personal interview, a *viva voce* examination by the Civil Service Commissioners has now been made a definite factor in the competition, and counts for about 300 marks out of a possible total of 1,900. Another important change is that women are now admitted to the examination. The age for entry is 22 to 24, with an extension of the upper limit for those who have served in the Army, Navy, or Air Force, or who already hold established posts in the Civil Service.

For a young man who on leaving school at the age of 18 or 19 desires to enter the Civil Service the best preparation is a three or four years' course at a University, and the attainment of First or Second Class Honours. Probably Oxford or Cambridge would be his best choice if he is free to choose; but the Scottish Universities have done well in these competitions, and the newer English Universities are not likely to remain out of the field. The expense of such preliminary education is less than that required for Medicine or the Bar, and any youth who is justified in hoping ultimately to succeed in the competition will have sufficient ability to gain a School or College Scholarship.

The higher Civil Service is not, however, barred to a youth who, even with a Scholarship, cannot afford a University education. University education is not a condition of entry, and there have been men who have won a post by private study alone, in spite of its disadvantages. Others, not a few, have entered at an earlier age, one of the lower branches<sup>1</sup> of the Service, and afterwards have either competed successfully

<sup>1</sup> It is intended ultimately to recruit a portion of the "Executive Class" (see page 64) by an examination suited for boys completing their education at secondary schools at the age of 17 or 18; but at present all vacancies in this class are being filled by promotion, chiefly the promotion of redundant men in the old "second division."

in the higher examination—they have the advantage of an extension of age up to 26—or by outstanding ability and steady work have won their way to promotion to the administrative class. The present permanent heads of two of the great departments have risen from the foot of the Civil Service ladder.

The question of REMUNERATION can be dismissed in a few words now that uniform scales of salary have been adopted for the administrative posts throughout the Service. A successful candidate is appointed in the first instance to a junior post on a nominal scale of £200 rising by £20 a year to £240 during his period of probation, and afterwards by £25 a year to £500; but to these figures must be added the bonus which at the present cost of living, converts a salary of £200 to £306 and a salary of £500 to £684. He has thus the certainty of rising in thirteen years, except in case of incompetence or misconduct, to £684 or its equivalent in real values; but before the end of that period a competent man is likely to have reached promotion to the class of "principal," with a salary of £700 rising to £900, figures increased by the bonus to £900 and £1,115. Above the rank of "principal," and filled only by the selection of the most capable, is the appointment of Assistant Secretary with a salary of £1,000, rising to £1,200 (with bonus, £1,220 to £1,420). There are very few posts higher than these: the permanent heads of the greatest departments have £3,000 a year without bonus, and £2,200 without bonus is the usual salary for the second in a great department and the head of a smaller one. These salaries are inferior to those paid to the general managers of banks, railways, and some large commercial undertakings, but they are sufficient generally to retain the services of competent men, though occasionally the Civil Service loses men like Sir Clinton Dawkins, Lord Bradbury, and Sir Josiah Stamp to outside appointments, or like Lord Milner, the late Sir John Anderson, and Sir Laurence Guillemard to Colonial Governorships.

It is less easy to describe the NATURE OF THE WORK. It



necessarily varies widely in different departments and in different divisions of the same department. It may be said broadly of the domestic departments that most of their work falls under three heads : (1) the running of organisations for such purposes as the delivery of letters or the payment of war pensions ; (2) the framing and enforcement of regulations, such as those for mines, factories, merchant ships or motor cars ; and (3) the decision of individual questions, such as the remission of sentences or the approval of housing schemes. To these may be added (4) the supervision and co-ordination of the work of Local Authorities in such matters as Health and Local Finance, and (5) in recent times the fostering of certain industries, like agriculture and forestry. The work of the three Defence Departments, while falling chiefly under the first head—the running of great organisations—includes much that corresponds to the second and third heads. There is also, in the Civil Service, a great deal of financial work : every important department has its own financial division, and the Treasury has finance for its chief, almost its sole, preoccupation—on the one hand the great financial operations connected with revenue and loans, and on the other the control of the expenditure of all other departments. A different class of work falls to the Foreign Office, Colonial Office, and India Office in adjusting relations with foreign countries, with dominions and colonies, and with the Indian Empire.

Perhaps the best description in general terms of the work of the Service is to be found in the report of the " Civil Service National Whitley Council Reorganisation Committee," which was presented in February, 1920, and was adopted by the Government. In that report, apart from typists and shorthand typists, four classes of officers are distinguished on the basis of the nature of their work : they are named, in ascending order, the Writing Class, the Clerical Class, the Executive Class, and the Administrative Class. The first two classes are, the report says, engaged in " all such work as is of a simple mechanical kind, or consists in the application of well-defined

regulations, decisions or practice to particular cases." The other two classes have "work which is concerned with the formation of policy, with the revision of existing practice or current regulations and decisions, and with the organisation and direction of the business of government." The Executive Class is confined to the supply and accounting departments and other specialised branches, where there is a large body of work requiring something less than the highest degree of judgment and resource ; while the Administrative Class, with which we are here concerned, comparatively small in number, undertakes, in all departments, those duties of decision, co-ordination, and organisation for the performance of which "officers of the highest standard of qualification are needed."<sup>1</sup>

A junior entering the Administrative Class ought, at the outset, to "go through the shops," should learn from the bottom upwards all that is being done in his department, and how it is done. For this purpose he must be content for a time to perform a good many duties that ordinarily would be performed, and perhaps better performed, by experienced clerical or executive officers ; but while so doing he is learning the elements of superior work and qualifying to undertake it. In the criminal division of the Home Office, for instance, he is set to work at once to read petitions from, or on behalf of, prisoners, and the reports of their trials, to summarise the essential points, and to suggest the inquiries to be made if any are necessary ; but if he is worth his salt he will, in a few months, be able to suggest the right decision in a large proportion of the cases. In other divisions his first work will be the preparation of short *précis* of correspondence and the drafting of letters. He will, when he has gained a little

<sup>1</sup> The terms "Administrative Class" and "Executive Class" are not happily chosen ; for the work of both classes is partly administrative (the settlement of policy and the giving of directions) and partly executive (the carrying out of orders). All that can be said is that the work of the one class is *mainly* administrative, and that of the other *mainly* executive.



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experience, have to draft letters which require not merely literary proficiency but sound judgment and ability to read the letter he writes with the understanding and feelings of the person who will receive it. Clearness, conciseness, and definiteness in stating decisions, and the avoidance where possible (often it is not possible) of stereotyped forms, are among the qualities which distinguish a good draftsman; and where grounds for a decision are given they must be so stated as to show their reasonableness and to avoid opening up controversial points which are not relevant to the decision. Hundreds of official letters have given rise to discontent and protest because the decision, right in itself, is so stated as to appear unreasonable or to provoke controversy on some minor and irrelevant point.

Two things are essential to the junior's progress. He must take a living interest in the work he is doing, must realise its importance to the lives of men, and be keen, even in minor matters, to follow a sound policy and to promote its success. He must also acquire personal knowledge of the materials he is dealing with. If, for instance, he is concerned in the administration of schools or prisons he must visit them, see their working on the spot, and learn something of the minds of their inmates and of their teachers or warders. If he is in a department in charge of a body of inspectors he must get into personal relations with individual inspectors, and go with them occasionally on their rounds. This aspect of the education of juniors has been left too much to chance; it should be a regular part of their training, as, for instance, when the Post Office sends out a junior administrative officer to act for six months or a year as assistant to a Surveyor, thus giving him an opportunity to visit all the Post Offices in a district and to learn the details of their work. It was a weak point in some of the best civil servants of the old regime that they had only a paper knowledge of the work of their departments. I have known the permanent head of a department that dealt with prisons, reformatory schools, and

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mines who confessed that he had never seen the inside of a prison or reformatory or been down a mine ; and though his abilities were of the highest order, his work suffered from lack of concrete knowledge.

After a few years a good junior may hope to be secretary to a departmental committee, with the responsibility of collecting the information required, calling witnesses, and very likely drafting its report ; or he may so make his mark as to be selected for a private secretaryship, a post in which he will see something of the working of every branch of his department, and become keenly alive to its relations with its political chiefs, with Parliament, and with the public.

I will not follow his career farther. The qualities that will make for his success were summed up in a sentence by William Penn : " Five things are requisite to a good officer—ability, clean hands, despatch, patience, and impartiality," to which we may add " good judgment and common sense." As he climbs the ladder his work becomes more responsible, and ought to become, to a capable man does become, more interesting. The danger, indeed, is that he may become so interested that he will do too much himself and not pass on enough to his juniors. Ability to delegate work is essential to a good administrator : lacking it, he may wear himself out by doing work which he ought to have entrusted to others.

It remains to say something of the ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES of the Civil Service as compared with other professions.

First of all, the Civil Service is the service of the country. Every civil servant is part of the controlling organisation which exists for the benefit of the whole community—which holds together the social system that secures life and liberty to the citizens, and in many directions provides the means for their welfare and betterment. Some men, in choosing a profession, have regard only to their own interests ; others are influenced by a desire to serve their fellows individually, as the doctor serves his patients or the teacher his pupils ; but there are



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others who find an appeal—something more than mere sentiment—in the feeling that the work they have chosen is in the nation's service and for the common good.

The work which has to be done by the Civil Administrator is varied and interesting. There must, as in other professions, be some routine ; but a public office is always provided with a suitable staff for routine duties, and routine is eliminated, as far as possible, from the work of the Administrative Officer. When he has passed his apprenticeship he has to deal, day by day, with a succession of problems which are interesting, because their solution involves his responsibility and calls for the exercise of his intelligence, judgment, and initiative ; and from time to time he has to undertake constructive work which is of wider scope, and is increasingly interesting if increasingly difficult. Perhaps the hardest and most interesting of all constructive problems are those which arise in promoting and co-ordinating international action, not only in the political field but in social and industrial matters, and in questions of health, communication, and commerce—work now stimulated and widely extended by being placed under the guidance of the League of Nations.

The Civil Service does not offer the most brilliant chances of wealth or fame. Its prizes are few and modest compared, for instance, with those of Medicine, Law, or Engineering, and the anonymity of its work closes its door to anyone whose ambition is a great public reputation. Against this is to be weighed the practical certainty of a salary sufficient at the beginning to live on, and rising later to a competency for a married man with a family ; and at the age of 65, when a man's energies usually begin to flag, it makes provision for retirement, in the form partly of a capital sum and partly of a pension for life.<sup>1</sup> If no public credit can be obtained by exceptionally successful work, there is, perhaps, less risk than in some professions of mistakes which may bring disaster to a career.

<sup>1</sup> After forty years' service the capital sum and pension together are actuarially equivalent to two-thirds of the retiring salary.

## THE CIVIL SERVICE : ADMINISTRATIVE

The Civil Service restricts personal freedom more than some professions. The civil servant has to carry out the behests of superior officers and ministers who, if usually wise and considerate, may sometimes be arbitrary and unreasonable ; but it may be doubted if the petty annoyances he suffers from even such a master are more than those endured by a doctor or an architect at the hands of unreasonable clients. Again, he has, summer and winter, to sit at his desk for seven hours a day, for five and a half days a week, and this minimum has to be exceeded in times of pressure, and increases as he advances in rank and assumes higher responsibilities. His whole time belongs to the State, and, unlike the lower grades of the Service, he has to work whatever overtime is needed without additional pay. On the other hand, in normal times and circumstances he is free and his own master after the fixed office hours, and he is entitled to a holiday of six weeks (after ten years' service eight weeks) in the year.

In former days the hours were much shorter and the work far less than now, giving rise to the old gibe that civil servants, like the fountains in Trafalgar Square, played from ten to four ; and young men who aimed at a literary career used to be told that a place in a public office would give them an assured, if small income, and ample leisure for the pursuit of their ambition. That has long ceased to be true, and no one should now enter the Service who is not prepared to do a solid day of official work. Yet even now the hours, at any rate of junior officers, are not so long as to exclude the possibility of outside pursuits. Within the last twenty years a member of the Service has held the professorship of poetry in Oxford, another has attained high distinction as a dramatic critic, and others have produced the standard works on Pali literature, on Greek Mathematics and on the Elizabethan theatre. Yet another has held the Amateur Open Golf Championship without exceeding the limits of official leave. Some, living in East End settlements or elsewhere, have devoted their spare time to what is now known as "social



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service," that is, in the words of Lord Cave, "the attempt to better the lives of others by means other than legislation."

Social service ought to have, and often has, a special appeal to civil servants. In their business life they have chosen to serve the State, one of whose aims, under modern condition, is the education and betterment of the community; and it is natural that they should seek to lend a hand where the same end must be promoted by individual effort. The two sides of this work, far from clashing, mutually support one another. The civil servant has opportunities in his daily work of seeing where the sphere of effective Government action ends, and what blanks have to be filled by personal and voluntary exertions; and if he engages in personal work among his fellows, his official work will gain by the extension of his practical knowledge and the widening of his sympathies.

For such pursuits the civil servant can find time chiefly in the earlier years of his service; but it is his own profession in which his chief interest must lie, and which, in the more responsible posts, will at last absorb all his energies. "To those who think life should be a long education the choice of a profession is a matter of the greatest moment, for every profession that deserves the name must draw so largely on the time and intellect of a man as to allow scant opportunity for general study. Therefore everyone who wishes to preserve a high tone of thought and a mind constantly open to new impressions must look for a calling which is an education in itself—a profession which presents a succession of generous and elevating interests." This was said by Sir George Otto Trevelyan in recommending the Indian Civil Service as a career, and it may be said also of the higher work of home administration.

## (b) EXECUTIVE

BY

ALBERT LIECK,

*Chief Clerk, Marlborough Street Police Court.*

THE Civil Service has, compared with the business or professional career, few and comparatively small prizes to offer, if by prizes are to be understood large money rewards ; but for those who enjoy the exercise of power, and are content to exert it anonymously, there are considerable opportunities. If the secret history of the departments could be revealed, many an imposing glove would be found to have had inside it an unknown hand. It would be surprising if this were otherwise, for it is a true tag which says that knowledge is power. Administration being a great art, the regular practitioner must inevitably have an advantage over any but the most exceptional amateur. Not all political heads of departments are exceptional men. Even when they are, they have their hands full of other things, and, the great controversial issues apart, the government of the country is in the hands of a small number of men who sit at desks in offices.

The open road to the higher administrative posts of the public service lies through the Universities. It is difficult for an outside student, especially one who has to make a living while he studies, successfully to compete at the examinations. However, in these days any clever and determined boy has a real chance of securing a college education and entry through the reserved gate into his country's service. There is some promotion from the lower ranks, much more than there used to be ; but those promoted reach the higher class later in life



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than the University entrants, and this handicaps them in the race for the top, official seniority necessarily having considerable effect upon promotion.

The members of this Administrative Class, the civilian equivalent of the military "brass hats" are concerned with the formation of policy, with the co-ordination and improvement of Government machinery, and with the general administration and control of the public service. A capable young man who will work hard can have a very interesting life. He proceeds from one task to another with sufficient speed to avoid getting stereotyped, and, having room to grow to his job, need never get stunted in mind or slackened in energy. He can stretch himself to his work, the most healthy, intellectual, and moral exercise a man can have. He will earn a good salary and a sufficient pension.

Below the Administrative Class comes the Executive Class. Their work has a wide range. In practice it sometimes includes propping up an ineffective member of the Administrative Class. For the Civil Service suffers from one unavoidable defect. The examination net cannot exclude all the unfit, and there is no such process of natural selection to weed them out as there is in the business and professional worlds.

The smaller the class of men concerned the more patent will be the defects of the square peg in the round hole, but it is the tradition of the Service that the work is always greater than the man; and the task of holding up the hands of a nominal superior is one to be accepted willingly, and loyally carried out. It has its own special interest, and is an excellent training for the temper. Occasionally it leads to greater things.

The officially recognised work of the Executive Class covers a wide field. It includes the higher work of supply and accounting, dealing with cases which do not fall clearly within rules, the initial inquiry into the more important matters. The Executive Officer will often be in charge of a staff. He

is largely responsible for operating the machine which does the work planned by the administrators. His job offers plenty of scope for real ability. He can make it extraordinarily interesting to himself by thoroughly mastering its details and its relationship with other parts of the work.

He will often find himself in contact with some large and interesting phase of human life. Years ago I served in the foreign branch of the Post Office, and discovered it to be the gateway of the world. I have never had time or means for foreign travel, but what matter? I have been all over the world on the map and in books. Once, indeed, to a much-travelled man I talked of forgotten steamship lines and their ports of call till I innocently misled him into thinking me a Ulysses like himself. I still cherish an interest in the rivalries of Liverpool and Southampton and a personal concern for the inhabitants of Tristan Da Cunha. Moreover, it became of financial interest to learn foreign languages ; so the keys of all Dante's hells and heavens were passed to me across a dirty old office desk.

One very important thing for the civil servant to remember is that the work that earns the bread and butter must, by the nature of the case, take up a substantial part of his life. He will be wise if he choose to make this part interesting to himself. It can always be done, and the doing keeps in check the deadening influence of routine. But, if he elect to give no more of himself than is sufficient for bare efficiency, he has leisure in which to cultivate other tastes. Years ago, in the dull old Post Office Savings Bank, there was a second division clerk who, in his three weeks' holiday, devoted year by year to one object, had acquired a comprehensive knowledge of the pictures of Europe and developed a critical faculty of the highest class. In the same home of interminable figures was W. W. Jacobs, moving his first delightful skippers and fat watchmen into the limelight. In another branch of the Post Office served that dramatic critic to whom Bernard Shaw addressed the epistle dedicatory of *Man and Superman*, and



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we whispered with bated breath the rumoured figure of his immense non-official income.

There was, too, once a second clerk in a London Police Court, a predecessor indeed of my own, who spent his leisure in discovering how to eliminate phosphorus from pig iron. His name became one of the best known in the world of industrial chemistry, and his invention greatly furthered the prosperity of a great staple trade. The State employs a whole army of engineers and other technical men, and individuals among them, though less known to fame than Gilchrist Thomas, have to their credit many useful inventions which subserve the thousand activities of a civilised community.

We cannot all be famous writers or scientists. For the less gifted moderate hours, good holidays, certainty of tenure (the law that the Crown can dismiss at pleasure is balanced by the fact that it never takes its pleasure in this form) and the secure pension are, on the whole, not unfair equivalents for the comparatively small pay and absence of glory.

The pay of the Executive Class is a moderate competence; enough to live on, and a little over for the embroideries of life.

Below the Executive come the Clerical Classes. Their pay is quite fair, considering the degree of education and intelligence they are expected to possess. There is no question about it that their work, and generally the work of the large grades below them, is routine work. Effective routine is the life blood of big concerns. The public sneers at it as "red tape," being apparently under the impression that a large business can be run on the same lines as a small chandler's shop; but whoever ponders upon things will realise the hopeless muddle which would result if there were no sub-division of labour. Repetition work is dwarfing, no doubt, whether in a Government department or in a bank or factory; but modern society is organised for mass production, and we must accept its drawbacks, unless we are prepared to go in for some drastic simplification of life, involving an immense reduction of population.

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Doing the same thing over and over again is not necessarily fatal. If it is desired to exercise the higher faculties of the mind, they are not left unfree. I look back to long years in the Savings Bank, where one added up columns of figures for days on end, or made ledger entries at a fixed rate of so many to the hour, but learned to work so automatically that you could discuss everything in heaven and earth with the philosopher at the next desk. Delivering letters may not seem an inspiring task, but one rural postman thought to such good effect on a long and lonely round that he is now minister of a considerable church in London. Another postman became a poet, and another a golf champion.

A Government clerk's very mistakes may have almost endless results. Did not a mere copyist insert the word "not," all out of his own head, in the Statute 34, Edward III., and so alter the law of England for centuries past and yet to come?

Though the Olympus of the Administrative Class is almost closed to the rank and file of the Civil Service, there are a number of special appointments open to them, which, while not extravagantly paid or conferring great nominal responsibility, are not badly rewarded, and can be exceedingly pleasant and interesting. Among them are clerkships in the Metropolitan Police Courts, the branch of the public service with which I am, naturally, the best acquainted. But these appointments, though in one sense they stand alone, are not the only ones where men who cannot enter the circles of the higher gods can find a full and interesting life.

The staffs of the Metropolitan Police Courts are, strictly, not civil servants, but they are under regulations practically identical with those of the Civil Service, and previous service in a Government department counts towards pension.

Like a number of posts in the public service, police court clerkships are filled by a double process of selection from men already in the Service. There is an examination, for which sit only candidates nominated by the heads of their departments. The examination is farcical. The vacancies



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occur rather infrequently, and it is very rare that anyone thinks it worth his while to prepare himself in the subjects of examination on the chance of a nomination. As a result, the candidates have a few weeks' wild cram at such subjects as the law of evidence, and he who crams best comes out first. The wise competitor takes a holiday and learns the prescribed text-books by heart. Those of the nominated candidates who have the best short-range memories get the appointments. I fancy the *modus operandi* is much the same for other "limited competitions," as these scrambles of picked men are called.

The work in the police courts is absorbing. Even its dry bones, the law, can be made to live. One begins with learning the criminal law, and that wonderful product of evolution the law of evidence; and goes on to the law of the domestic relations, of landlord and tenant, and of master and workmen. All these have to be applied. The study opens out, in full verification of Herbert Spencer's comparison of knowledge to an expanding sphere; the more you learn the more of the unknown you come in contact with. You soon wonder why the law is what it is, and begin to investigate its history. Before you know where you are, you are back to Edward III., who invented the Justice of the Peace (I always suspect one of his clerks first thought of them, and Edward appropriated the idea, in the true official style). We practise his spell-binding every day of the week, for ruffians "bound over to keep the peace" religiously wait till their year is up before they smite again. A great invention! Edward is only a milestone on the backward road, and you travel via Rome to remote antiquity.

Better than law is life. Through the police court marches humanity. Every social development and political activity is reflected in its work. A new form of social insurance is invented, and we do cross-word puzzles with wonderful forms evolved by pundits for ignorant men and women to use as excuses for their frauds. Women discover that the way to get the vote is to break windows, and we have the police court atmosphere thickened with flour and soot. A war comes;

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and we find ourselves trying to discover whether a particular individual is really a rabbi of an heretical Jewish sect or merely a one-man humbug. A great financier tumbles off the fraudulent tight-rope on which he has gaily skipped for years across the gulf of the criminal law, and we listen to the old theme of the pigeons and the hawk, with variations *à la mode*. And we learn, as nowhere else, the splendour and squalor of the city of Mansoul.

When we try to arrive at that comprehension which the French say produces pardon for all, we find ourselves launching into the study of economics and social history, seeking to understand the housing question and the reasons of unemployment. Far from Jack's work making him dull, he finds life all too short for its full enjoyment, and is lucky if he has wife and children to compel him sometimes to play.

Personally, I have but one regret. I feel that the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council stole a march on the police courts. We have never had to consider the right of a Hindoo idol to "appear" and be "heard" on the question of its own place of abode. That little incident in the Judicial Committee seemed to strike many people with an idea of the greatness and variety of the British Empire (what a misnomer for a magical growth that emperors have gazed at with mingled malice and amazement). It is this great and complex thing which the civil servant has to assist in developing and working. His hands are very full, and he should be at once humble and proud.

No man whatever can work for himself alone ; every job of work well done is a bit of social service. But the civil servant is concerned with phases of human activity which are social in a special sense. His are tasks set apart by the community to be done by its immediate servants for the general good, to be performed without favour or ill-will to any. The public work well done is social service, and unless a public servant has done his best with his immediate work he is only a sham if he goes off to other so-called social work. He will find, in



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the compass of his official day, innumerable opportunities to do the little bit extra that helps. A postman who takes trouble to deliver correctly an ill-addressed letter may be conferring an inestimable benefit, just as want of care may produce a tragedy. A telegram reading, "Will work, character honest," was transmitted as, "Will work, character lowest." That little slip brought about a murder and an execution.

Usually the doer of good never knows of the good done, as the clerk at Somerset House, whose courtesy and kindness to an unhappy widow in a muddle about her husband's little estate, will never know of the grateful encomium upon him which was poured into my willing ear.

In the police courts there are unending chances of doing the scout's daily good deed, if it be only encouraging into coherency the poor wretch abashed by the alarming surroundings he has thrust himself into, or patiently assisting in unravelling the matrimonial tangle of a wife more sinned against than sensible. Larger opportunities are not lacking. Perhaps the most fruitful new departure in the police courts was the introduction of the probation system, by which a first offender is not merely given a chance but is helped to profit by it. Many of the probation officers are servants of the State, and the State contributes to the pay of all, though forgetting to give them a pension. For the most part the efficacy of a police court consists in what might be described as its scarecrow effect. But probation work is real, constructive social work. What might be the wreckage of society is renewed for useful service ; men and women are helped to rise to better things on the stepping-stones of their dead selves.

Probation is especially of value when directed to the salvage of the young, and in this work ways have been found by which the official staff can co-operate with the social worker as commonly understood. They have, for instance, had a share in founding and running the Boys' Garden Colony at Basingstoke, where youngsters whose crimes, when fully analysed, resolve themselves into having a bad home and

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neglectful parents, are helped to get on to their feet, and to substitute healthy and decently paid work for street corner loafing and small pilfering.

Readers will forgive me for enlarging on the interest and opportunities of the police courts. Both exist elsewhere in the Government service, though secret pride in one's own particular service makes me think they exist nowhere else in quite such large measure. That I should still have such enthusiasm left after thirty years' work for the State argues well for the State service. But it is necessary to insist, now and always, that each man finds interest and opportunity for himself.



# The Local Government Service

BY

F. H. C. WILTSHIRE,

*Town Clerk of Birmingham.*

**T**HERE are at present in England and Wales approximately 1,854 Local Government Authorities representing County Councils, County Boroughs, Borough, and Urban and Rural District Councils, each of them possessing powers and duties of varying degree and of greater or lesser importance according to their status.

The men and women forming these different Authorities give their services free of reward, and many of them are, at the same time, engaged in private business or trade of their own. They are elected to such positions by their fellow-men and women, being judged by their experience and capacity to be the most suitable persons to direct and control the affairs of the community and area concerned.

It follows, therefore, that each of these Authorities of necessity require the services of paid technical officials and employees to carry out their wishes in such matters, and more often than not to advise and assist them in arriving at their conclusions as to the best methods of government.

I should add, at this stage, that my remarks are only intended for what are known as the "non-manual" or administrative staffs, and not for the "manual" workers who are also employed by Local Government Authorities.

There is a wide field of employment, therefore, at the present time open to boys desirous of considering the Local Government Service as a career, but, like most other

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occupations, the supply is greater than the demand, and the Service, therefore, has become somewhat specialised.

The Acts of Parliament regulating Local Government Authorities impose on them, in the main, the duty of having certain technical officials, viz. :—

1. The Clerk.
2. The Treasurer or Accountant.
3. The Surveyor.
4. The Medical Officer of Health.

The position of Clerk is filled invariably now by a qualified solicitor or barrister, that of the Treasurer and Accountant or Surveyor by those possessing the diplomas of their respective professions, and the Medical Officer is, of course, a qualified doctor.

The necessity for technical qualifications exists also in other phases of Local Government activity, when the Authority considers it expedient to appoint officers to control a particular sphere of work.

It is essential, therefore, that a boy should possess good educational qualifications before he attempts to enter the Service. Opportunities generally will occur, however, after his entry and while he is employed, of improving his status by taking technical examinations which will have special reference to the particular branch of the service to which he is attached.

Birmingham, with approximately a million inhabitants, is perhaps the biggest hive of Local Government activity in the country, and the Corporation, in addition to those of the Clerk, Treasurer, and Surveyor, have separate departments, each having their skilled technical officers, staff, and employees to deal with the supply of gas, water, and electricity respectively, the running of tramways and omnibuses, the management of the markets, the public health and medical services, the libraries, baths, the collection and disposal of refuse, weights and measures, a savings bank, parks and



pleasure grounds, allotments and small holdings, education, lunacy, and mental deficiency, and the management of the Corporation estates and property.

Other Local Government Authorities, in varying degrees and ways, carry out some if not all of the different services to which I have referred.

It will be apparent that for the successful management of these different undertakings officials possessing expert knowledge of the subjects are required. In the smaller areas, of course, many of these services are non-existent, or are amalgamated under one department, where perhaps a more general knowledge of the matter will suffice.

It would be too big a task to discuss separately the merits or demerits of these numerous phases of activity, and I therefore propose to consider the Local Government Service as a whole, and to indicate briefly to the reader the reasons which, in my opinion, may be used for or against its adoption as a career.

By way of preface, however, let me say that a boy who reckons to count his success in life merely by the amount standing to his credit at the bank should refrain from entering the Service. An official who leaves this world wealthy by the emoluments he legitimately receives is, I think, almost unknown.

Be that as it may, however, the main advantages of the Service may be summarised as follows :—

#### (a) SECURITY OF TENURE.

The work required to be done is generally of a continuous nature, and that uncertainty of employment which exists, especially at the present time, in the industrial world is absent. Although the services of practically every employee can be terminated at short notice, yet dismissals, except for misconduct or incompetence, are rare. Local Government Authorities in this respect are proverbially generous, and every opportunity is given to their employees to justify themselves before their

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services are dispensed with. To many men, and especially to those who are married, this security is an important feature, as it helps to remove from their minds the fear of unemployment, which is an anxiety to a great number nowadays.

### (b) PROMOTION.

Most Local Government Authorities have adopted a defined system of grading their staffs, with fixed minimum and maximum salaries for each group of employees. As a general rule, promotion, coupled with an increase of salary, takes place at regular intervals, either annually or biennially, until the maximum of the particular grade is reached. Further promotion can follow by the individual being moved into a higher grade, if and when a vacancy occurs, at the minimum salary, and the same procedure then follows. Provided, therefore, a man performs his work satisfactorily, he is practically certain to receive a limited promotion in the manner indicated. Opportunity always exists in most grading systems for special treatment to be given to an individual who by his ability, energy, and general merit has proved himself to be worthy of more rapid promotion.

With the exception in some instances of the chief officials or heads of departments (and also in some of the next senior positions where special qualifications are required), it is, I think, the practice of Local Government Authorities to fill the senior positions with members of their existing staffs, provided, of course, they possess the necessary technical qualifications. The opportunity, therefore, in most cases, exists for every boy entering the Service to advance to the higher positions in the particular branch which he selects.

### (c) FIXED REMUNERATION.

One of the most difficult matters in this life is for a man to do without things to which he has been accustomed for a long time. The individual becomes, as it were, acclimatised



to his surroundings and way of living, and he is unable to envisage their abandonment.

This problem presents itself to many who, through no fault necessarily of their own, but by reason of the condition of the industry or business in which they are engaged, find themselves in comfortable circumstances at one period of their lives and in reduced straits a short while later.

It is, I think, true to say that many a man in the industrial world who is to-day earning a sum of money which, although it may well exceed from time to time the fixed income of a Local Government Officer, is gained at the expense of much anxiety and worry, and with no small degree of uncertainty, would readily exchange his lot with the public official who receives his remuneration, smaller though it be, at regular intervals and who, in consequence, is able to adapt his mode of living more readily to balance his income and expenditure.

#### (d) SUPERANNUATION.

Previous to the passing of the Local Government and Other Officers' Superannuation Act, 1922, only a few Local Government Authorities possessed powers to provide superannuation schemes for their employees. Since this Act, which is an adoptive one, was passed, however, many Local Authorities have introduced schemes for the purpose, and in all probability before very long Parliament will make it obligatory upon all Local Authorities to do so.

The existence of a superannuation scheme is manifestly an attractive feature of the Service.

It may be said that a Local Government official, as a general rule, is not able to make adequate provision for his old age; consequently the knowledge that, after his retirement at the age of 65, which every scheme requires, he will receive a reasonable pension until his death is a distinct advantage.

The percentage contribution which he is required to make, and which is deducted from his salary before he receives it,

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is not a burden to him, and an amount proportionate to the number of years served and the annual salary earned is paid to him at 65, or indeed before that age if he becomes through illness or otherwise unable to perform his duties.

In the past it has been the practice for many Authorities to continue to employ their officials long after they have reached the age of 65, and when they have become incapable of discharging their duties satisfactorily, because those Authorities, not having any superannuation scheme, were unwilling to discharge an employee who had rendered them good service in the past, and who had been unable to save enough from his salary to provide for his old age.

A practice of that kind is obviously uneconomic, and a superannuation scheme operates, therefore, to the mutual advantage of the Local Authority and the official.

### (e) ATTRACTIVE CHARACTER OF THE WORK.

The Local Government Service is very akin to the Civil Service, the main difference being that the latter serves the State and the taxpayer and the former the particular Local Government Authority and the ratepayer within its territory. Both are alike in that it is not a Service for self but for the community in general. It may prove difficult for those in the lower ranks of the Service to appreciate the full meaning and virtue of this characteristic of the work, since they may feel themselves to be mere cogs in the wheel of a huge machine playing no part whatever in the great scheme for the improvement and well-being of the Authority and area which they serve.

Their work may seem at times extremely monotonous and stereotyped to a degree, and in their fretfulness the inadequacy of their remuneration and the poor prospects of advancement become their main concern.

This, after all, is not unnatural. The impatience of youth is proverbial, and rightly so. Nevertheless, as the individual rises



in the ranks of the Service, and is brought into closer association with the general scheme of things, the charm of the work will take hold of him, and the incentive to leave the mark of his own individuality in the improvement of the city, town, or area he serves will be an abiding one.

Some there may be whose senses in this direction will never be awakened: the materialists, for example, who regard the Service merely from its money earning capacity, and are unwilling to do anything beyond what they are strictly paid to do; or again those without ambition or initiative, and who are content with their lot and have no particular desire to progress in the Service in that it would mean added responsibility which they are unwilling to take.

There is, moreover, the fascination of working, as it were, "behind the scenes," each official playing his part in the carrying out of some scheme for the public benefit, but for which, in the public eye, he gains no credit or recognition. The Local Government official of the right calibre does not ask for that nor does he expect it, his satisfaction lies in observing that the scheme, when complete, meets with general public approval.

#### (f) OPPORTUNITIES FOR SOCIAL SERVICE.

In any city or town it will be found that the centre of activity, with regard to charitable effort and schemes for social service, is the offices of the Local Government Authority. The Lord Mayor, Mayor, or Chairman of the Authority, as the case may be, is expected, by virtue of his office, to play the foremost part in helping forward such movements.

It is natural, therefore, that the staff should have special opportunities of becoming aware of such matters, and, indeed, of being called upon to play a part in the furtherance thereof.

To a Local Government Officer, imbued with the desire to render social service for the benefit of his less fortunate

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brethren, the circumstances of his employment afford him many opportunities of doing so, and in an infinite variety of ways.

In every community of people there are those who, through ignorance of existing conditions, or perhaps indifference for the welfare of others, conspicuously fail in their duty in this respect. Doubtless they would say that had they only known their help was needed in any particular direction they would have given it gladly.

No Local Government Officer, on the contrary, can remain uninformed on such matters, as he is constantly brought into close touch with them for the reasons I have stated. The knowledge of the poverty and distressing conditions of others cannot fail to react upon him, and if his heart is in the right place he will soon become an ardent social worker in the direction which best appeals to him.

Having somewhat briefly reviewed the points in favour, as they seem to me, of the Local Government Service, I will now refer to what may be regarded as its disadvantages, viz. :—

### (a) REPRESSION OF INDIVIDUALISM.

It is an unavoidable evil of large staffs, where many are engaged upon doing the same class of work, that a boy of energetic character and ambitions may feel that his energies, to all appearances, are being wasted.

The very fact that a fixed salary is paid, which is reckoned to be the full value of the work performed, as compared with a smaller and fixed remuneration with an added commission for the amount of work done, or again being paid by results only, may be considered to have a deadening effect upon him and his powers of initiative.

Why should he work harder and perhaps for longer hours than another when both are paid the same salary, and to all appearances are likely to be so paid for some time to come? The sense of injustice steals over him and he relaxes his efforts accordingly. He compares the opportunities of greater success



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which industry or commerce would afford or, if he was attached to one of the professions, that private practice would give.

### (b) SLOW PROMOTION.

Promotion in the Local Government Service is admittedly slow, especially, perhaps, for the officer of average ability.

I have stated previously that promotion within certain limits is, however, practically assured, but the fact remains that the increments are not large as a rule, and a man may take a long time to reach even the maximum of his grade. Furthermore, the period of waiting to compete for a possible vacancy in a higher grade may be also considerable.

The chief cause of this is that those Local Government Authorities having superannuation schemes, and possibly many others as well, require their officials to pass a medical examination proving them to be "first-class lives" before they are appointed. Few vacancies, in consequences, arise through death or ill-health, and they occur mainly through retirement on account of old age. A further cause is, as I have already said, that in towns having no superannuation scheme in operation officials are retained long after they have become unable to perform their duties satisfactorily.

One of the virtues of superannuation schemes is that the compulsory retirement of officials at the age of 65 makes for more rapid promotion in the Service.

The final cause is that the higher paid posts in the Service not being numerous, the opportunities of succeeding to those positions are limited accordingly.

### (c) RATES OF PAY.

A careful study of the newspapers and appropriate journals from time to time will disclose contentious views as to the sufficiency or otherwise of the remuneration of Local Government Officers. In many towns it is not uncommon to

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hear such officers described as "the highly-paid officials," or as possessing extremely "soft jobs." More particularly is this the case when a possible increase in the local rate is foreshadowed, and a desire for economy sweeps over the elected representatives of the town or area concerned. It will be found, more often than not, that the first objective for attack is the salaries of the officers, and reductions, or the postponement of advances, which are thoroughly deserved, are urged. There are places, however, I am glad to say, where more enlightened views are held on this subject; but the idea still exists that the public officials as a whole are overpaid for what they do, and it is difficult to eradicate that impression.

Now what are the real facts of the case, and do they tend to support such a theory? Generally speaking, it will be found that approximately between 70 and 80 per cent. of the staff employed under any Local Government Authority are receiving a salary of under £300 per annum. The remainder comprise the heads of departments and occupants of senior positions, involving greater capacity and entailing heavier responsibilities, and for which higher salaries are naturally paid. It is, I think, a fair assertion to make, disregarding, of course, all cases of exceptional merit or professionally qualified individuals, such as a solicitor, surveyor, engineer, or accountant, that a boy entering the Service at the age of 18 and until he is 21 will receive from £78 to £130 per annum, and that adults from 22 to 28 will receive approximately £155 to £235, or possibly £300 per annum.

The higher paid positions vary so much according to the size and importance of each town, and the duties and responsibilities that have to be undertaken, that it is impossible to give any one figure that would have general application.

It may be useful to the reader, however, if I indicate briefly in the following table what my personal views are on this matter, so that some idea may be formed in his mind as to the prospects in the way of remuneration which the Service has to offer :—



## F. H. C. WILTSHIRE

Local Government Authorities Population.	Senior Positions and Heads of Sub-Depts.	Heads of Depts. other than Statutory Officers.	Statutory Officers : Clerk, Treasurer, Surveyor, Medical Officer of Health.
Not exceeding 25,000	£ 150	£ 300	£ 400-600
25,000-50,000	250	400	600-800
50,000-100,000	250-400	500-750	800-1,250
100,000-250,000	350-600	750-1,250	1,000-1,750
250,000-600,000 (a)	450-700	1,000-1,500	1,250-2,000
Over 600,000 (b)	600-800	1,250-2,000	1,750-3,000

(a) Nine towns only in England and Wales.

(b) Three towns only in England and Wales.

The foregoing table is an approximate estimate only, as the amounts vary in different parts of the country. The limited number of Authorities paying the higher salaries should be carefully noted.

Bearing in mind the salaries which common knowledge teaches us are paid to men occupying somewhat analogous positions in commercial or industrial undertakings, those shown in the table are unfavourable by comparison. This fact, coupled with the knowledge that by far the greater proportion of Local Government Officers are receiving under £300 per annum, proves conclusively, I think, that the Service as a whole is by no means overpaid, and many argue that it is not even well paid.

### (d) SUBORDINATION OF SELF.

Most boys, I think, are naturally self-willed, and the repression of their feelings or the suppression of their opinions to those of others is, at times, a difficult matter. Consequently the thought of embarking upon a career in which this

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characteristic is a marked one may seem distasteful to many. The Local Government Officer may find it irritating at times to devote his energies to work which, with the more intimate knowledge at his disposal, he knows to be worthless, and which is in connection with some scheme that is never likely to come to fruition. His function, however, is to carry out the wishes of others, that is, of course, the Local Authority, to the best of his ability, no matter how great his disagreement with their views may be. It may appear, therefore, that the Local Government Service is of a subservient nature and affords little scope for development of initiative. It is true, no doubt, that greater opportunities in this direction exist for those engaged in trade or commerce, and more particularly amongst those who enter any trade, business, or profession on their own account. It can be said, of course, that no matter what career a boy adopts there is bound to be a certain period of self-discipline and subordination of his will to others whilst he is learning its technicalities, and that the Local Government Service is no different from any other in that respect. Unfortunately, however, this characteristic of the service continues throughout an officer's career in a greater or less degree, and constitutes an inherent feature of his employment. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that in the opinion of many this aspect of the position creates an unfavourable atmosphere.

In my foregoing remarks I have endeavoured to put fairly before the reader what in my judgment can be said for or against the Service as a career ; and it would be inappropriate, I think, to attempt to influence his decision by an expression of my own personal views.

That being so, I will conclude by remarking once more that to those whose ambitions lie in the accumulation of wealth the Service can have no attractions, but to those who seek an honourable and steady career, which at the same time can be extremely interesting and full of opportunities of service for others, I have no doubt employment with a Local Government Authority will make a great appeal.



*Proposed*

# Social Service

BY

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THE field of social service to-day offers almost limitless opportunity to the qualified social worker, professional and voluntary. During and immediately after the war the idea of Social Service received almost universal adherence. The war brought a willingness to submit to experiments, and produced a sense of the necessity for collective effort. Men thought in terms of "the nation," and insisted on everything that would make the nation better. National efficiency became a watchword—at first, that the war might be won, and, later, that we might survive in the struggle after the war for the markets of the world.

For some five years did this spirit reign, and in that time made an impression on the public mind which not even the fiercest of "economy" campaigns could afterwards completely eradicate. Before the reaction set in the institutions which are interested in social progress had used their influence, with considerable effect, towards the codification of the general, but necessarily vague, sense of social responsibility. Some, though not all, of this effect has been saved from the general wreckage of our war-time ideals, and despite the ground which has been—we do not doubt temporarily—lost, the need for and the value of Social Work is acknowledged to-day to a degree which could hardly have been foreseen before the war.

The growth in the scope of Social Work has been accompanied by—has, indeed, been largely the result of—

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a change in its spirit. Just as medicine has outgrown the days when almost its sole thought was the cure of the diseased individual, and has become the great instrument of public health, so the emphasis in Social Work has been taken from the individual and laid on the community. The time of well-meaning but haphazard and comparatively uninformed tinkering is gone, and to-day the social workers' patient is Society. This, of course, is not to say, either as regards medicine or Social Work, that the individual may be ignored, but it does mean that the individual must be envisaged against the clear background of the community as a whole, and must be dealt with in a manner consistent with the laws—as far as we know them—of public social health.

The development of the new spirit may be traced to the teaching of leaders of Social Work like C. S. Lock, Bernard Bosanquet, and E. J. Urwick, and it has been fostered by the growth of organic relations between statutory bodies and voluntary workers, particularly in the fields of school care committee work and infant and child welfare, and by the emphasis placed on training by certain voluntary movements, such as the C.O.S., the Hospital Almoners Council, and lately the Industrial Welfare Movement. It has been stimulated, too, by the various schools of sociology, the earliest of which made their modest debut towards the close of the last century.<sup>1</sup> These schools brought a new and a larger vision to bear on social problems, and created a demand for scientific method in Social Work. In the satisfaction of this demand the schools themselves have developed, until to-day nine of our Universities<sup>2</sup> have departments devoted to theoretical and practical training in social studies. This great advance in

<sup>1</sup> It is no part of our task to trace the growth of these schools. To those who would know more of this aspect of the subject *The Equipment of the Social Worker*, by Elizabeth Macadam, M.A. (Geo. Allen & Unwin, 1925, 6s. net) is especially recommended.

<sup>2</sup> Birmingham, Bristol, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Liverpool, London, Oxford, St. Andrew's.



applied social philosophy has opened up an endless vista of Social Work for the future, and has brought forth a new type of social worker, engaged in an exalted calling, in which the best minds and the highest qualifications may be adequately employed.

It is not possible, in a short space, to enumerate and describe all of the many activities open to the qualified social worker, nor is such an enumeration necessary. Those who desire precise and detailed information on any branch of Social Work are referred to the published papers of the National Council of Social Service.<sup>1</sup>

A brief survey, however, of the various classes of Social Work now carried on will give a broad idea of the existing openings, of the varied character of such work, and of the opportunities for the employment of different types of personal qualities.

For the purpose of our survey only those types of Social Work will be considered which may be approached through training in one of the schools of Social Science. That is to say, for instance, that Medical Officers of Health, though engaged in the fullest sense of the term, in Social Work, are not to be included, as they require qualifications not to be obtained through a school of Social Science. In the same class are members of the Civil Service, the higher grades of municipal officials, district nurses, and so forth. In passing, however, it may be noted that many such, who cannot in the narrower sense be described as social workers, would find it of great advantage to have some working knowledge of Social Work—as indeed some have—and a course in Social Science, in addition to their more technical training, would well repay the extra time and trouble involved.

In any classification of the many types of Social Work certain broad groups at once suggest themselves. The social

<sup>1</sup> Particularly to *Public Social Services*, published by the Council from 33 Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C. 1. Price 2s.

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worker may find himself concerned with the child, the adolescent, or the adult, and, in general, with only one of these three groups. Each group may be sub-divided and considered at work (or, in the case of children, in school) or at leisure, and it will be found that separate authorities are responsible for work in connection with abnormal individuals in each group.

The chief Social Work amongst children of school age is that carried out by School Care Committees as auxiliaries to the Local Education Authorities, which are responsible for the provision of a school medical service, and which may provide meals for ill-nourished or necessitous children. Each of these services necessitates home visiting: the first to ensure that the instructions of the School Medical Officer are carried out; the second that inquiries as to the economic circumstances of the family may be made. For this purpose each Care Committee has under its direction a number of visitors, whose duty it is, moreover, to make the preliminary arrangements for the special treatment of physically or mentally defective children. The majority of these visitors are at present voluntary workers, but in London and other large towns a number of paid officers are employed.

In so far as provision is made for the organisation of the leisure time of juveniles, the work is mainly carried on by voluntary agencies, which, however, may receive grants from Local Education Authorities. The more important of these agencies employ, in addition to a larger number of voluntary workers, a certain number of paid officials. The work of these bodies is mainly the provision of clubs, playing fields, school holiday camps, and the organisation of play centres, etc.

In recent times the importance of ensuring to the adolescent the best possible start in life has been widely recognised, and some serious organisation to this end has taken place. Most important, perhaps, are the Juvenile Employment Committees now established in many places either under the auspices of the local Employment Exchange or of the Education Authority.



It is the purpose of these committees to advise the parents of children leaving school as to the most suitable types of employment, and to assist in "placing" the children. In this manner the tendency for children to enter "blind alley" occupations is checked, and work is found for them offering reasonable prospects, and for which they are fitted by qualification and temperament. In many cases touch is maintained with the children for some time after their first employment, a course which is helpful to the child who has been well "placed," and which, where the type of employment first chosen for the child proves unsatisfactory, enables a change to be made before the child's adaptability is cramped.

A Secretariat is provided for these committees by the authority under the auspices of which they function, but at present the rest of the work is voluntary. The whole Juvenile Employment Service must, however, be considered as in its infancy. The growing recognition of the economic and social advantage to be gained by putting the right man into the right job has led to much research, and the future is bound to see an ever-increasing application of our new-found knowledge to the solution of this problem. The industrial psychologist is already entering the field in this direction, and with greater organisation will come greater specialisation. The nature of the work, however, ensures that there will always be a place for the social worker proper.

For the adolescent at leisure physical and mental recreation is provided by various voluntary organisations, the most notable of which are, perhaps, the settlements. The settlements, each concentrating on a given locality and having for its object the identification of itself with the lives of the people amongst whom it is placed, offer a co-ordinated scheme of social service not possible to more specialised and less localised organisations. Again, the settlements and the other organisations concerned depend for much the greater portion of their work on voluntary help, though a few paid posts are available.

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Anything which might have been described as Social Work amongst adults in industry was practically unknown prior to the war. The rapid growth during the war of that service known as welfare work was due to the great influx into industry of women and the necessity which was felt of making special provision for the welfare of this exceptional body of workers. Endorsed by the Government and adopted by them in their own factories, the system rapidly spread to factories of all types. Owing to the immediate recognition of its importance, to the circumstances under which it is performed, and, perhaps, to the necessity of making every post a full-time appointment, as well as to the personal qualities and qualifications demanded, welfare work is the one branch of Social Work which is already completely professionalised.

The appointment of a welfare worker implies the recognition to a greater or less degree of the fact that each factory is in itself a community, of which every man and woman employed is a member, with the rights as well as the obligations of citizenship. While it is the function of the managerial staff to exact fulfilment of the obligations, it is the duty of the welfare worker to ensure that the rights are respected. In practice the welfare officer will work in conjunction with a committee of the employees ; will, as occasion arises, represent the views of the committee on all matters within its purview to the employer ; will see that the workrooms are kept in a clean and healthy condition, and that the requirements of the Factory Acts are complied with ; will organise canteens, rest-rooms, and, if the workers so desire, will initiate social activities on their behalf outside their working hours. In some cases complaints by or against workers will be dealt with in the first place by the welfare officer, and usually, by no means the least important part of his work, is the selection of new workers, particularly juveniles for the factory.

As may be imagined, this work calls for thorough theoretical and practical training, without which no one can hope to obtain a post, and several of the schools for social study now offer



appropriate courses. The trade depression has naturally re-acted on the demand for welfare workers, and the market is for the time being supplied, but it may be expected that with the revival of trade a new demand will arise.

A type of Social Work different from that to which reference has so far been made is the organisation of private charity. The larger and more efficiently administrated charities, the outstanding example of which is, of course, The Charity Organisation Society, all employ a certain number of paid organisers, generally recruited from the ranks of their voluntary workers.

The case of mentally deficient, discharged prisoners, probationers and juvenile delinquents accounts for a good deal of most useful Social Work, but, again, does not in itself offer much scope for a career, as except for the higher administrative officials and probation officers the work is voluntary. It may be that the not very distant future will witness a demand for a greater number of probation officers of good social training, for there is to be noted at present a marked tendency towards a more scientific treatment of "Society's misfits."

Nothing so far has been said of social service as it is rendered by the various churches, and there is no space in which to do more than mention the subject. It is to be noted, however, that such social service is increasing the number of (rather badly) paid posts to those who wish to work in association with a religious body, *e.g.* rescue work. Certain Diocesan Councils, for instance, have definite training schemes for women, run in conjunction with the University Social Service Department.

One other type of Social Work must be mentioned. In some of the larger cities there are Local Councils of Social Service where all those engaged in Social Work and administration, official and non-official, may meet for discussion of their common problems, and for the co-ordination of their multifarious activities. Such a centre can enormously increase

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the effectiveness of the social agencies affiliated to it, and through co-operative effort can undertake work, such as local social surveys, beyond the scope of any one of its constituent organisations. The office of such a Council forms a valuable local information bureau on all community matters, and economies in administration have been found possible by the pooling through the Council of the secretarial work of some, at least, of the affiliated societies. The secretaryship of a Local Council of Social Service demands an officer of wide experience and considerable qualities and is generally regarded as a paid post. There are as yet, however, few such Councils, though the need for them in every centre of population cannot be too strongly stressed. Their establishment in every place where two or three independent organisations are working side by side is the special concern of the National Council of Social Service, but their task will be made substantially lighter by the active co-operation to this end of all the social workers in each of the localities in which no Council already exists.

Again, it is admitted that this very brief review makes no pretence to catalogue all the avenues open to the social worker. It omits, advisedly, the services of Local Government and particularly the Education Service, all of which should be regarded as social services of the first importance, requiring the same gifts of enthusiasm, breadth of mind, and personal sympathy, and the same trained and disciplined understanding as other forms of Social Work. It seeks merely to indicate, by way of concrete examples, the types of activities in which the social worker may engage. The examples chosen are confined to those classes of work for which the training is provided by any recognised school of social science. If to these be added the cases in which, in addition to a thorough grounding in general Social Work, some more or less technical qualification is required—such as maternity and infant welfare work, health visitors, hospital almoners—then our review becomes still less complete. At this stage, however, a broad



re-classification of Social Work, rather from the point of view of the worker than of the work itself, may be attempted.

On the one hand there is that class of work, such as the organisation of leisure time of children and young persons, calling primarily for keenness, sympathy, and patience in the worker, and which itself forms an excellent preliminary training for those proposing to take up more serious theoretical and practical work. Such work is, of course, almost entirely voluntary and is likely to remain so. It should not, however, be despised on that account, and may serve as an excellent apprenticeship for workers of neither the age nor experience for more advanced work.

On the other hand there is the class of work which demands definite social training for its adequate performance, and it is into this class that the great bulk of present-day Social Work falls. All "case work" comes under this head, as well as those activities which, in addition to social training, require some more technical preparation. It is in this class that the salaried posts may be sought, for though most of the work is voluntary, the tendency is towards more specialisation and greater technique, and as this tendency develops it is to be expected that the number of full-time paid workers will increase. Again, however, the importance, to would-be professionals, of voluntary work must be emphasised, both because of its value as a training and because, other things being equal, salaried officers will naturally be recruited from the ranks of the voluntary workers.

In conclusion, a word may be said as to the workers. Every form of Social Work calls for persons of healthy optimism, practical sympathy, and sound understanding. For the modern social worker academic training is indispensable, as by this means only can he reach a well-proportioned view of his task; but because he is working always in the raw material of ever-varying human being, personal qualities are no less important.

Social workers cannot expect to grow rich, and those who

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consider their work only as the means of obtaining an income will prosper better in some other calling. But to the socially minded no work could be more attractive or give more satisfaction in the doing. The work offers opportunities to men and women, for, while women are more suited for work in connection with children and, perhaps, for most "case work," the rest of the field is open to men and women alike.

For some time to come it is possible that more workers will be trained than can be professionally employed, but it is to be remembered that by no means all the persons in training seek professional posts. The serious social worker of to-day recognises the necessity for training, whether his object be voluntary or professional work. Taking a longer view, there can be no doubt that the future is bound to bring a great extension of public health and social health services, resulting in a gradually increasing demand for the adequately equipped social worker.



# Politics and Public Life

BY

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of State for Foreign Affairs, 1924.*

**I**T used to be said that the better-to-do classes with roots in the country and incomes of an assured character dedicated their offspring to the public service one after the other—one to inherit the property and do the work of the squire either on the bench or in the shooting coverts, another to enter the Church, another to represent the pocket borough in the House of Commons. That was "in the old days," and the world has changed. There is now no class that holds a prerogative to govern; there is now no service earmarked for any social group. In the school knapsack of every youth may be hidden the title of a Privy Councillor, in his clothes box the gold lace of a Minister of State. And with this change has come another. Problems of State become more complicated and exacting; whole fields of activity which our fathers regarded as being fenced off from Parliamentary and Whitehall concern have been taken in, and none of the old burdens have been permanently removed. The public estate has been widened, not a foot has been alienated. Here comes a danger.

When the work of governing and administering was regarded as the historical business of a class in the community, that class, accepting its responsibilities, prepared itself in its own way, and in accordance with its own conceptions of duty, to perform them. There were the Public School and the University for gentlemen, the tutors, the grand tours, the political coteries, the country house parties, the patrons, the Chesterfields,

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and from this medley of society and caste, of good and evil influence, of honour and corruption, of education and trifling, the race of rulers and public servants was maintained, with results that on the whole were satisfactory, in so far as the fabric of the State, the habits of social order and cohesion, the life of the nation were sustained.

The critic lacking the historical mind can play himself by exposing the irrationality of the arrangement, the absurd means by which governors were recruited and promoted, and for the millionth time can put into the pillory the Tapers and the Tadpoles ; but whilst we agree with the indictment and pay tribute to those who helped to end the anomalies, the man interested primarily in the doing of things must put first and foremost the fact that progress went on, and the history that was being written was one of increasing freedom with stability. As the years went "the governing class" became more and more synonymous with the nation, and the identity is now complete.

Some people may question whether this class or that is fit to govern. The question is vain. Men, not classes, govern now, and if they do not the people have now nobody or nothing to blame but themselves. When government has become the business of every class and the opportunity of every citizen the danger is that what is everybody's business may become nobody's business, that legislators may be chosen without reference to the work they have to do, and that no special training for a life spent in public work is provided. Some very false ideas about politics and politicians also add to the danger which the nation runs. If political controversy is allowed to degenerate into an unprincipled squabble devoid of honour, and directed only to produce party victories from a mass of deluded electors, the political career will be one of men who are but putty in the hands of electioneering agents, who are unworthy of esteem, and who in consequence are enemies within the gates of their own nation. To think meanly of politics and politicians is the surest way of making both mean



in actual fact. Such a life offers no openings for youths who would wish to serve God at the same time as they serve the State.

It is always easy to get interests represented, but a representation of the co-ordinated organic life of the nation is far more difficult, and calls for higher qualities and a different training. The truth of the matter is that public life provides a field for the highest intelligence and practical capacity for both the heart and the head, and must always hold out great attractions to the man or woman who seeks happiness in work which is both difficult and important. Politics seriously taken touch the highest and deepest concerns of civilised men living in community. Their interest is infinite, and ranges from the exhilarating conflict of ideas which produce political battles to the visiting of the widow and the fatherless in their affliction ; from the settlement of history-old international conflicts that are told in volumes of war and misery to the planning of parish roads ; from the making of changes which will be the landmarks in the way of nations for the rest of time to the devising of some useful little expedient to remove irritating failures in simple justice or humane consideration.

In these days it can be said of the politician that before the child is he is preparing for its healthy needs, during its lifetime he is busy with everything which goes to make the world hard or genial, a burden or an inspiration for it, and after it has ceased to exist he uses its experience and its visions as a scientist uses his discoveries to complete our knowledge of truth, and remove error and its consequences from society. Surely a task that will continue to enliven men's energies so long as the human heart can feel and the human mind see visions of divine perfection still unattained.

In the course of one of the least important weeks in the House of Commons the subjects under review will call for a knowledge of history, economics, trade both as to its processes and the channels down which it is flowing, law, social experiences, geography, native races, world products ; it demands an exercise of judgment to interpret, explore and

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forecast ; and whilst the hours are passing the men who are doing their proper share of the work find no pause in the fascinating interest of their work. Only people who are failing to find their feet in the House of Commons, who are not really interested in their work, or for some reason or other are not doing it, or who as outsiders indulge in criticisms of the machine, can come to the conclusion that the work is of very little value, or that the House of Commons is nothing but a comfortable club of those who seek after ease and respectability. It is the place for ideas and ideals, knowledge and wisdom, visions and practical sense, criticism and construction, and if its proceedings lack in these virtues the fault is not with the kind of work which it supplies to its members. The fault is with themselves.

The public service is divided into several well-marked sections. First of all there are the two complementary tasks of legislation and administration ; then there are the divisions of local, national, and imperial concerns. The House of Commons is the legislative institution which, in spite of the buffetings dealt at it by obstruction, by pure partisanship, by attempts of minorities to do violence to its working, still stands as a model to the world. The Civil Service (which has now developed locally in connection with both municipal and county authorities as well as with Whitehall) is the organ of administration. Town and County Councils, Urban and Rural Councils, Boards of Guardians, Education Authorities are the bodies of local administration and legislation within certain defined limits.

I shall deal first with the Civil Service because it is simpler than the other, and the career it offers is more definite. Its gateway is educational attainment, and promotion within it is generally by seniority, though there is special scope for men of good character, devoted to work and particularly capable. The kinds of services required are legion—clerks, teachers, engineers, doctors, and so on. The services as a general rule have superannuation and pension schemes attached



to them, and those who pursue knowledge and culture whilst at work have every chance of enjoying in their evening years a leisure of satisfying interest unspoiled by worries about a livelihood, of fine thoughts and gentle activities by which those who are the blessed ones slip peacefully down to rest. What more can the heart of man desire who seeks a useful life for which he needs to make no apology at the final bar of judgment and a happy age? He will never become rich as men regard riches, but he will be able to do his duty to his children, and it will be his own fault if he be without a cultured comfort. During his life he is protected against the ups and downs of private employment; a month in work and a week out is not his lot; he may have to agitate in some places for better wages and conditions, but year after year these are being improved, and at the very worst the service has attractions of no small value.

In the Whitehall offices a wide field of opportunity is open for the capable man—the man who is interested in his work and gives to the State the best that is in him. There are no barriers in the road to the hill-tops, and the attraction of getting there is not the position but the work. One such servant was congratulated on attaining to one of the supreme heights. He was evidently pleased, and his reply showed the qualities that brought him there: "It is glorious work," he said modestly.

On the principle that a man tends to live up to his reputation the civil servant may be expected to acquire the habit of laziness and mechanical and routine work. The reputation is grossly unjust. Work done in public offices is as conspicuous for its disinterestedness, for the heart put into it, for its capacity and initiative as that done in private employment. The civil servant, especially in the higher and more responsible posts, has to work under conditions of interest denied to men in similar work or private employers. They have to be statesmen as well as experts; they work with men, they do not order them about. They have all the incentive of co-operating with the public, and their reward is to see progress

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in the condition of the people around them. To watch a great public servant at work and to work with him is a delightful experience. It is one of the rewards of holding high Government office. His is the large field of public opinion and need, of human progress and social improvement. His difficulties are great, but his interest in overcoming them is still greater. I have come across a considerable number of people who filled responsible administrative positions during the war, and the tribute they have paid to the trained civil servant for his width of view and range of vision and to his capacity has been uniform.

There are certain reticences which are rightly imposed on some groups of servants of the State, in order that they may claim to be regarded as impartial. They cannot, for instance, serve the State both as political partisans and as administrative officers, but this curtailment of liberty is amply compensated by the glorious opportunities they have legitimately for advancing their views and making themselves felt as advisers to their executive heads, and in working out with all the resources and expedients at their command the policies put into their keeping. Their rights as citizens are not curtailed, their special position gives these rights special forms. The more intimately one knows the work that the civil servant has to do and the abilities of the men charged with the doing of it, the more one understands how remote from the truth are those depreciations of the service which assume conditions that belong to the past—if ever they existed at all.

The public service of the member of a Town Council and the House of Commons is of a different order. That of the latter is not a profession in the common use of the word. When one serving the public in this way is described as "professional" the adjective implies a sneer. As it has become both advisable and necessary to draw for this service on interest and ability wherever found amongst men, the question of payment has arisen. The tradition of our country has been that this service should be given without direct fee or



reward (indirect fees and rewards have been common, however), and long after other countries had been paying good professional salaries to their legislators we followed suit. Members of Parliament are paid an annual stipend of £400, and we are beginning to hear of claims for the payment of members of municipal bodies consequent upon the large draft that their business makes upon the time of their members. Ministers have always been paid, but though ministerial salaries look high on paper, fortunate are those holding the most responsible offices if at the end of their terms they have been able to show a balance to the good after their bills have been paid. The higher the office, and the more it blazes in the public eye, the less is the net income. It is yet true that from the point of view of income service given to the public is no career for anyone to adopt. I hope that that will continue long to be so. For the first essential to public service is that a man may be ready at a moment's notice to gird up his loins and go. He must be free to be in a minority—even to be deprived by the will of the people of his opportunities to serve them. When income from public service becomes so important a calculation in the mind of the servant that he abandons conviction and conscience in order that he may retain that income, swears that what he believes to be black is white or refrains from testifying that it is black, then the public is being dishonestly served, and evil must soon befall the State. A wise and honest legislator will, therefore, always regard his salary as a convenience, but not as an indispensable necessity for his life. The most common way in which this is secured is that legislators have other means of livelihood upon which, whilst serving their country, they do not altogether lose grip. They are sometimes trade union officials, sometimes lawyers or members of other professions, sometimes in business, sometimes "independent."

Nevertheless, the public service is certainly one of the careers for which parents may well prepare their children as Chatham prepared Pitt. If the tasks of Government are now

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left to men who have already become old in business, or who assume them as a means of advancement in other professions such as the law, or who take them up because they have nothing else to do, these tasks will be poorly done. I have already indicated the variety of the questions upon which the House of Commons is now called upon to pronounce. Every one of them requires an assembly which has two qualities. It must contain experts, and the general body of members should have both an active interest in and knowledge of the business to be done, and for that a special training is required.

First and foremost Members of Parliament should possess such a sympathy with the people whose conditions supply them with their problems as to enable them in every case to put themselves in these peoples' shoes, and understand instinctively how the legislative proposals made will affect those they are designed to benefit. It is here that the working class youth, in view of the great part of political work that must now relate to social conditions, has special opportunities for effective work. He ought to know life in a far more realistic way than anyone else. The instincts of the masses are his by inheritance. The winds as they blow produce from his heart the same note as they sound in that of the crowd. The raw spiritual material necessary for successful political service has not to be laboriously acquired by him, they are his inheritance. He does not require to seek for them in social settlements, by "going down" to live where the common people live, by becoming an exile from his own surroundings and habits; they are his by birth. What he lacks perhaps is breadth of view, the Public School spirit of team work, the faculty of taking what he can get and of going on with the fight; and, on the economic side, an income.

The first stage in preparation for public life is, therefore, a trade or profession which gives some liberty and leisure. That in nine cases out of ten will depend on the mental equipment of the aspirant. Education! Education! that is the path to pursue. The time is past when that education was classical.



But the education should still be of the nature of culture. The man of one line of interest or knowledge is severely handicapped in public life. He does not get enough chances to show his special capacity. It used to be said of Scottish education that whilst it did not make scholarship it did make brains, and turned out a man who was fit to use his general intelligence in whatever work he had to adopt. A good grip on economic theory and reasoning is indispensable, but that is not enough. Two other things are equally indispensable. Truth must be presented in good form ; the method of handling problems so as to create permanent progressive movement has to be mastered. For the first, the moulding of expression on good literature, not to ape and not to quote, but to give the mind an effectiveness and chastity of quality, is the best training. That is why a knowledge of the Bible or Bunyan, not as theological or religious books, but as magnificent expressions of simple yet imaginative English is so advantageous. For the second, a knowledge of science so as to acquire sound modes of thought and, consequently, true conceptions of policy, is most useful. Thus one acquires the habit of trying to do things in a right way, and of hitting upon the right way to do them. How is this goal to be reached ? How is this institution to be transformed in constitution and working ? What is possible, what probable, and what not ? As these questions are answered in truth or in error depends the value of public work. That is the value of the scientific mind.

Let me put down with somewhat more precision the work for which a politician should try and train himself. He deals with society and its institutions, and therefore should know something about past changes, how they were brought about, the reasons for failures in attempts at reform ; he works with opportunities which depend upon human habits, prejudices, credulities, therefore he should know something of crowd psychology so that he may understand how change that is not catastrophic, and therefore likely to be permanent, may be made ; he begins nothing and can end nothing as he weaves

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a web that is endless but is an evolution of pattern, and therefore he should know what has already been done in his work, the experiments carried on and the solutions offered; his scientific mind will assume the continuity of evolution and the conservation of energy; he will need the guidance of economic knowledge to safeguard his work from superficiality and from becoming ineffective patching and tinkering; as the end of all his work must be to improve human qualities he cannot be indifferent to the arts and the beauties of life, so that he himself and his work may radiate spirit; in brief, nothing that contributes to human well-being can be alien to him; the philosophies, the arts, the sciences should be his companions. And if the ideal politician must for ever remain an abstraction of human efforts to perfection personified, he is, nevertheless, a standard to set before the youth who would give his life to politics.

For this preparation in training schools and classes innumerable are now available, and no youth in a biggish town need pine in vain for the training I have indicated if he has health and persistence at his command. If he be born away from such opportunities, let him read only the best in style and in matter, keep up with current events, be in touch with the life of the world, take the chances that are sure to come to him to get nearer to the heart of things, and then, whether the niche he finds himself filling be the more modest one of membership for a town council or even parish assembly, or the more exalted one of membership of the House of Commons, he will do his work with distinction and satisfaction; and should it be that he never emerges into the public gaze at all, he will be a citizen well equipped to add his voice, his influence, and his vote for the good of his country. For it ought not to be forgotten that though when put down on paper the training and duties of the public servant appear to be formidable, they are, after all, nothing more than are required for a worthy and a responsible citizen. Let us make men and we shall have citizens, let us have citizens and we shall not lack in good public servants.



# The Ministry of the Church of England

BY

THE BISHOP OF LONDON.

**I**T is one of the most extraordinary and, at present, inexplicable facts of the present day that with so many professions, such as the Law, Medicine, and Engineering, absolutely crowded, so that it is difficult for men to get a living in them, the one profession which offers the most complete development of mind, body and spirit should be at present starved for want of men.

Before I go into the possible explanations of this fact I would like to emphasise my assertion with regard to the entrancing field which the Ministry of the Church gives for every form of activity.

Let us take the lowest first. I was entertaining the two crews of Oxford and Cambridge on successive days before the boat race, which, alas ! for no fault of anyone's, was that year such a fiasco. It would have been impossible to have seen on two successive days a finer lot of young men, physically, but as far as I could make out in my conversation with one of the Presidents none of them was thinking of being ordained, unlike the long succession of famous old oars who have been ordained in the past.

But knowing as I do so well the masses of young men and boys to be won to God in London alone, where athletic prowess is so great an asset in arranging Saturday games and in winning preliminary confidence as a basis for higher things later, I confess I coveted that mass of young manhood to join

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in the great tug-of-war between the forces of good and the forces of evil.

For the first fifteen years of life in Holy Orders there is no profession in which a man can find more useful scope for all the athletic prowess he has developed at school and the University than in the Ministry of the Church. But I quite agree that it is only a beginning. "How long," I asked a well-known "blue" who was teaching in a boys' school, "does your athletic prestige help you?" "About ten minutes," he replied. What he meant was that the boys soon found out whether he could teach or not, and what there was in him behind this reputation; but still, even those ten minutes with boys are useful. The success or failure of every sermon to boys in a school chapel is decided in the first five minutes.

I do not mean for a moment to imply that the beefy athlete is necessarily going to be a successful parish priest, so we must next turn our attention to the *mind*. I can honestly say that during my own forty years of ministry I have never had mentally a dull moment. Everything that one has time to read brings "grist to the mill." "You can do nothing against the Truth but for the Truth" is one of the most enlightening phrases in Holy Scripture. All your "Greats" reading, if you are lucky enough to have been made to read "Greats," lights up the brightness of "the Light of the World" compared with the preliminary rays of Truth on the surrounding darkness outside it.

All history leads up to the great Revelation, or dates from it. It is not a mere conventionality to talk of "B.C." and "A.D.," for as a matter of fact what you have to preach for the rest of your life is the dominating Fact of the world. You are literally all the time "on the crest of the wave!" I can remember, during the years between the age of 23, when I left Oxford, and 26, when I was subsequently ordained, imagining that I was going to be "the slave of a creed" for the rest of my life, "cribbed, cabined and confined" in my outlook. I found, on the contrary, that I had climbed a glorious mountain



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from which I could survey all Truth, and that there is no realm of Science, Philosophy or History which did not receive new light and illumination when viewed from the standpoint of revealed Truth.

You imagine that after the first two, or possibly three sermons, you will have said everything you could possibly think of about God and man, and yet here am I, with thousands of far better men, after forty years, preaching as keenly and vigorously what we believe to be the secret—and the only secret—of a better world here, and of a happy life here, with undiminished and ever increasing joy and happiness. There must be something in the Gospel itself so to invigorate and even develop the mind.

But, naturally, the Ministry of the Church has even more to do with the *soul*. Interesting as it is to the mind to deal, for instance, with all the questions such as have been asked me, week by week, during my Lenten Mission in Central London, it is still more interesting to try and help the troubles and distresses, hopes and fears, of human souls. The fact that one can scarcely ever speak of them to anyone else but God only makes them all the more vital and even tragic in their import. After all, man is a "praying animal;" he is "born to pray," as the wing of the bird demands the air, and the fin of the fish demands the water, or the instinct of Prayer demands God. It becomes, then, of enthralling interest to develop this instinct in one's self and others into what, after all, is the highest vocation possible to man: Communion with God Himself. "What is the chief end of man?" is a question in the Presbyterian Catechism, and it is followed by the noble answer: "To glorify God and enjoy Him for ever." This, then, being the nature, scope and happiness of the Ministry of the Church (and notice, I am avoiding that common misconception of talking of taking His orders as "going into the Church") it is indeed surprising to find so few from the Public Schools and, later, Universities entering it to-day.

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Now, there are many alleged causes :

1. The most common one is the *financial* one, and no doubt we must admit at once that it is not a lucrative, and *ought* not to be a lucrative profession. It ought not to be too lucrative, otherwise it might entice unfit men to enter it, but on the other hand the Church has made the greatest possible mistake in allowing its clergy to live in circumstances sometimes of absolute poverty. Things, however, are very different to-day, or rather are becoming very different. Every living in England with more than 4,000 people, if in public patronage, has been raised to £400 a year ; every living with 1,000 people to £350, and with 300 people to £300. Curates now can get £250 at once.

When Paterfamilias wakes up to this change and asks himself in what other profession he is going to get his hopeful son off his hands at the age of 23 with £250 a year, he will, I believe, withdraw that quiet discouragement which many a good man, in what he considers the best interests of his son, has exercised during the last ten years.

There is still, however, a great deal to be done in this direction, but when an efficient Pension Scheme has been evolved and the new Dilapidations Act gets into working order, and church people have realised that "the living hand" must pay far more than it does and not depend so much on the generosity of the past, I believe that the financial obstacle to men taking Orders will pass away.

2. But a more commonly alleged cause is the *decay of faith* among the young men of to-day, and we must thank God for the honesty of the young who steadily refuse to profess and believe anything they cannot honestly believe, and who say with sincerity that "Every man must be his own Columbus and find the Continent of Truth." Undoubtedly the war and all its consequences have made men and women think to-day in a way they never have before : Is there really a Divine Person at the centre of all things on Whose Sympathy and Power one can really rely ?



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I need not say that in a short essay it is impossible to argue such a question. I have devoted forty years to giving the reasons for the belief that there *is*, and it has been the special subject of the Mission for 1925, which, with the questions and answers, is now published<sup>1</sup> under the title of *The Spirit of Jesus*. For what it is worth it contains my answer to the questions, though better ones will be found in Mr. Studdert Kennedy's *Wicket Gate* and *The Word and the Work*.

3. But, frankly, is it honest doubt which keeps so many men back? I doubt it. I think it is the idea that *a parson's job is not a man's job*. It is the thought of the long black coat and white tie, and the thought that you are setting out to be better than you really are. I remember so well asking a rather smart-looking Oxford man, who has subsequently done excellent work as a Chaplain during the war, why he had hesitated so long to be ordained. "Well," he said, "you won't think me conceited if I tell you the real reason?" "No, indeed," I said. "Well, when I looked out of the window I saw a parson in the street, and I said to myself, '*I can't be like that man!*'"

I think we parsons ought to remember that appearances do count. Bishop Carey, when he was at Oxford, working among the undergraduates, used to remind the clergy that it did him no good in his work when they came down to Oxford with a hat which looked as if it had been a "sleeping bag for the bat!" And we must remember that being poor need not mean being untidy.

But a little deeper experience of life shows that there are few more manly lives lived than by the clergy, who are always battling on bravely against what often seem overwhelming odds. And if life as a parson in England is too tame, we can always supply a man with a horse to gallop over the prairies

<sup>1</sup> Published by Wells, Gardner & Co. Ltd., 3 and 4 Paternoster Buildings, E.C.4.

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in Australia and look after the lonely colonist, who is only too glad to see him ; or send him to Africa to follow Livingstone, Harrington and Weston, in laying down his life in opening up Africa for Christ.

I would like any young man who reads these words to ask himself : *What is he going to sell his life for ?* He only has this one life to sell. It is a poor thing to sell it for mere wealth, or even fame, and a wretched thing to sell it for mere ease and comfort ; but if he wants to sell it for something which is lasting, which lasts into the other world as well as in this, let him go for human character ; let him see how many he can win to a nobler life. Let him do a bit of work for God before he dies, and he will have in return, in far greater measure than he feels he deserves, the gratitude of human hearts and the undying loyalty of countless friends.



# The Catholic Priesthood

Written at the request and with the full approval of  
His Eminence the Cardinal Archbishop of Westminster.

BY

REV. E. J. MAHONEY, D.D.,

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THE Catholic Church in this country needs priests to fill the ranks of the clergy, and is most anxious that the right sort of candidate should come forward. The purpose of this article offers a welcome opportunity of explaining to a wide public the meaning of the priestly vocation, the qualities it requires, and the sacrifices as well as the attractions which accompany it.

At the outset it must be understood that the priesthood is a "profession" only in a very limited sense. We commonly speak of a young man choosing a profession, but in the case of the priesthood it is not the young man who chooses the Church, but the Church which chooses the young man: "Neither doth any man take the honour to himself, but he that is called by God as Aaron was." God chose Aaron through Moses, the external ruler of the Jews, and God chooses the priests of the New Law through the bishops, whose office it is to rule the Church of God. This has always been the doctrine of the Church, practised in Apostolic times, evident in the rite of Ordination, and formulated in ecclesiastical legislation. The doctrine is mentioned here not with the intention of entering into a theological discussion, but because of a necessary consequence which is vital to the purpose of this article. It

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may happen that a Catholic youth who is eminently suited for the priesthood, and endowed with all the necessary qualities of nature and grace, hesitates to offer himself as a candidate through fear of not having a "vocation," understanding by the term a direct internal call of God to the soul. His very reverence for the priesthood, and the supernatural powers conferred upon it, may deter him from aspiring to it himself, unless he is certain that he is being called by God. The difficulty, as stated, is due to a misunderstanding of what is meant by vocation. It is a direct consequence of the doctrine just enunciated that, although the internal call may often be present, it is not a necessary condition; on the contrary, it may be a delusion unless it is ratified by the visible external authority of the Church. Dr. Jowett has written a book of guidance for Nonconformist ministers in which he says: "In all genuine callings to the ministry there is a sense of Divine initiative, a solemn communication of the Divine Will, a mysterious feeling of commission which leaves a man no alternative, but which sets him in the road of this vocation bearing the ambassage of a servant and instrument of the eternal God." For a Catholic there is Divine initiative in the call to the priestly state, but it reaches the subject through the Church: "He that heareth you heareth me." There is a feeling of commission as clear and determined as the Apostles received it from Christ: "Go ye and teach all nations." There is the certainty of being an ambassador of Christ and an instrument of the eternal God, though it arises not necessarily from an internal inspiration, but from the external authority to whom Christ said: "As the living Father sent me I also send you." This is the gist and kernel of the whole matter. No man has a right to ordination unless he is chosen by the Church, and being chosen, he rests assured that this vocation is from God.

This doctrine supplies the basis for a more practical examination of the subject. Before a candidate will be called to the priesthood he must approach it with a right intention,



and be endowed with such qualities of mind and body as will enable him to fulfil its functions and observe its obligations in a fitting manner. It must be understood that, although the prerogative of calling subjects to the priesthood rests with the bishop of the diocese, it is wrong for him to do so unless he is assured of their fitness. This assurance has a prominent place in the rite of Ordination, and normally rests on the judgment of the superiors of the theological college or seminary in which the candidate has been making his preparation.

Before everything else the priesthood must be approached with a *right intention*, that is to say, the wish for the office must not be based on an unworthy or insufficient motive, such as the desire for a quiet life of decorous inactivity. The very minimum of right intention is that the priesthood should be undertaken for the glory of God and the salvation of the souls of men, for a priest is ordained not for his own benefit but for the good of others : " Every high priest taken from among men, is ordained for men in the things that pertain to God, that he may offer up gifts and sacrifices for sins." This is the least that is required, but beyond it stretches limitless degrees of priestly aspiration according to the measure of the giving of Christ. He is the light of the world, but it depends largely on himself whether the light shines dimly or brightly. He is the salt of the earth, but it rests with him whether he is distinguished by the care with which he keeps within the limits of his strict legal obligations, or whether he expands in laborious zeal for the cause of Christ.

Intimately connected with the right intention there is further required a certain minimum of *personal sanctity*, and some degree of those natural virtues upon which the supernatural are built. Habits of chastity, in view of the celibate life he volunteers to lead, are clearly a *sine qua non* of the ecclesiastical state, and the flagrant absence of this virtue would be sufficient to indicate the non-fitness of a subject for the priesthood. Almost of equal importance, especially in these days, is the virtue of obedience, the promise of which is

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solemnly made to the ordaining bishop. It consists in the attitude of mind that is prepared to submit personal preferences and inclinations to the will of lawful authority, and unless a man is willing and anxious to do this, it can be predicted that he will not be happy as a Catholic priest. Added to and crowning these natural virtues must be found some degree of personal love for Jesus Christ Our Lord, Divine charity which is the essence of perfection, and which must dominate the priestly life as the spring and source of every activity in the service of God and man.

Finally, before he can be ordained to the priesthood a candidate must acquire the minimum of knowledge necessary for the adequate performance of his duties. It has not been altogether unknown to find amongst ecclesiastical students a man of excellent intentions and with a high degree of sanctity, but whose mental equipment is altogether unequal to the demands made upon it. A priest has to meet with all classes of the community, and not unfrequently takes part in the public life of his district; he is expected to solve difficult cases of conscience and deal correctly with intricate matrimonial legislation; he has to explain the Catholic Faith in private and in public. It is evident that if the necessary degree of culture and knowledge is wanting, his life would be a reflection on himself and on his brethren in the priesthood, and would do harm rather than good to the cause of Catholicism: "Because thou hast rejected knowledge I will reject thee, that thou shalt not do the office of priesthood to me." In addition to the ordinary elements of a sound education he must have a fairly extensive acquaintance with Latin before he can begin the study of philosophy and theology. Average intellectual ability is all that is demanded, and it is the exception for a candidate to be rejected solely on this score. If preparation for the priesthood is begun early in life, a conscientious application to the classical side of a school curriculum will fit him with sufficient knowledge for the purpose. If he offers himself as a candidate later on in life, he may have to devote



a year or more to preliminary work before beginning the course of philosophy—it depends entirely on the education he already possesses. In any case, the difficulties, however great they may appear, will yield to quiet, steady, serious work. Some of the very best candidates, especially since the war, have begun to study for the priesthood comparatively late in life, and in many theological colleges special arrangements are made for this class of student.

The degree in which these qualities are attained varies considerably, of course, not only in the individual, but also in the mass, and is relative to the needs of the Church and the number of candidates who offer themselves. It is the object and purpose of ecclesiastical education to strengthen and develop the fitness of candidates, and, if necessary, to eliminate those who are manifestly unsuited for the office. The philosophical and theological course covers six years, a period during which the suitability of candidates is put to the test. Their intentions in entering the priesthood, which through the light-heartedness of youth might have been vague and inadequate, are gradually rectified; the religious and disciplined life of the seminary assists their growth in personal holiness and in the formation of good moral habits; in particular, they are trained to a cheerful and willing obedience, no matter what their age, previous occupation, or position in life may have been; and their knowledge is put to the test of examination at regular periods. A candidate on being accepted as an ecclesiastical student is normally sent to the diocesan seminary, or in exceptional cases to a Catholic University abroad. The theological course is preceded by two years' philosophy, *i.e.* a fundamental rational inquiry into such subjects as Logic and Metaphysics, Psychology, Theory of Knowledge, Cosmology Ethics, and Natural Theology. The four years' course of divinity includes, besides Dogmatic and Moral Theology, the study of the Holy Scriptures, with some knowledge of Greek and Hebrew, Church History, Canon Law and Liturgy.

Financial reasons no doubt prevent a certain number of

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possible subjects from testing their fitness for the priesthood, for during the period of preparation a student with no private income is dependent on others for his support. The cost of ecclesiastical education is not excessive, with care £100 per annum would meet the necessary expenses. But it can be asserted with confidence that it rarely happens that a subject eminently suited for the priesthood is unable to attain to it through lack of means. There exists in most dioceses some fund for the education of ecclesiastical students, and one can name no more fitting object for the charity of the faithful, but it is, of course, understood and taken for granted that a student's parents and relatives bear the cost of his education to the extent of their ability.

The ordinary and proper course which should be taken with regard to a prospective candidate is to bring the matter to the notice of the parish priest of the place in which he is living. Using his judgment and experience, he is able to form a rough estimate of the candidate's suitability, and coming to a favourable decision, recommends him to a bishop or to the authorities of a religious Order. In the latter case not all of the qualities which we have set out are necessarily required; a youth with the proper intentions and aspirations can do a most valuable and necessary work for the Church without proceeding to Holy Orders at all, but should he desire to become a *priest* in a religious Order, everything that has been said equally applies. Throughout this statement we have chiefly in mind the priesthood as represented in the ranks of the diocesan clergy working immediately under the bishop. The life a priest of this kind leads is fairly well understood by the laity, but lest there should exist any misunderstandings the concluding section of this article will set out the chief characteristics of the priestly state; in every walk and condition of life on this earth the attractions are necessarily mingled with some burdens and obligations.

The first thing which would appear to many a serious disability is the obligation to celibacy freely undertaken with



the sacerdotal office in the Latin Church. The law of priestly celibacy is not tyrannical, for no man is bound to become a priest unless he wishes to ; nor is it a harsh and unreasonable condition, for numbers of men remain unmarried for purely natural reasons, and there are examples of secular professions which demand a celibate life, as in certain grades of the Army. St. Paul recommends virginity as a counsel of perfection. It is affixed to the sacerdotal office in order that, being freed from marriage ties, the priest may become "more solicitous for the things that belong to the Lord, how he may please God." The laws of the Church have gradually taken the form of constituting Holy Orders a direct impediment to marriage, and of fixing to the reception of the subdiaconate an implicit vow of chastity. The observance of this obligation is, naturally speaking, difficult to many, and in some cases may be so overwhelmingly difficult as to make it inadvisable to accept the priesthood. But it is made easy if habits of chastity are acquired in youth, and with the sacrament of Holy Orders supernatural grace is given by God to strengthen the weakness of human nature. The priest is deprived of married happiness, but he is also freed from the worries and anxieties of that state, and has the consciousness of avoiding the responsibilities of married life, not from selfish motives, but in obedience to the voice of Christ speaking through the Church.

Unless he enjoys a private income the priest is a poor man. He lives by the offerings of the faithful according to the command of Christ, but even if the occasion offered he is unable to become wealthy from gifts made to the church he serves. Having supported himself in decent and reasonable comfort, he is bound by Canon Law to apply the excess to religious and charitable purposes. On the other hand, by being ordained to the service of the diocese, he is assured of adequate support both in sickness and old age, and, while exercising his functions as a priest, administering to the spiritual needs of the faithful, he will find that they are not ungenerous in their assistance.

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Until a man has been ordained some years he works as an assistant at one of the larger parishes, under the direction of a senior priest ; later on, he may be appointed to the sole charge of a parish. He usually has no choice in selecting the kind of work he prefers, but, as he solemnly promised at Ordination, holds himself at the disposition of the bishop of the diocese for which he was ordained. The diocesan authorities, of course, try to satisfy the legitimate wishes and preferences of the clergy, and in the case of older priests generally consult them before making any change ; but the number of vacancies are limited, and all the needs of the diocese must be served, with the result that an individual might find himself occasionally in uncongenial surroundings. If he has valid and serious reasons for desiring a change his request will always receive a sympathetic hearing. In the present growing stage of Catholicism in England, the senior priest of a parish, more often than not, finds that heavy financial responsibilities, due to the building of church and schools, are placed on his shoulders. It is not his personal debt, but belongs to the mission and the diocese ; yet for practical purposes it is personal, since as long as he remains in that place the interest must be paid and the capital debt reduced by his own efforts in raising the money from the people. This is really the only serious anxiety likely to enter into his life.

For a man who loves his vocation the rest of his work, though occasionally hard and wearing, is a source of comfort and happiness. The only thing liable to be a strain on his physical strength is the necessity of fasting till well after mid-day on Sundays by reason of the late Masses. The service of a large hospital, workhouse, or public institution may prove exhausting, and several hours at a stretch spent in the confessional is a far more tiring experience than people imagine. But the close contact with souls, and the comfort he alone can give them, more than compensate for the physical fatigue endured in ministering to them. He is the dispenser of the mysteries of God, day after day offering the eternal Sacrifice



of the Mass, and it is with a supernatural purpose and on a supernatural plane that all his activities on behalf of his fellow-men turn. By reason of the office entrusted to him, not through his own personal gifts, he is able to exercise a tremendous influence over the souls of the faithful; they call him "father" and treat him as such. Any priest who is even moderately faithful to the high ideals of his office enjoys the reverence and affection of his people to a degree which a non-Catholic can scarcely understand. The life he has to lead does entail some degree of hardship and sacrifice, but even though he did not look beyond this life for recognition from a just God, he would find it here in the loyalty and affection of the people.

The bishops most earnestly desire that Catholic parents with suitable boys should try to turn their minds, from their earliest years, towards the priesthood as a vocation in life. It is from good Catholic homes that the Church expects and finds recruits to fill the ranks of the clergy. A certain gravity and decorum is doubtless a most desirable thing in the clerical state, but what is wanted above all is a priesthood which is earnest, enthusiastic, and hard-working. If a man is accepted for the office, understanding what it means and prepared to give this service, he has within his grasp a state of life which can be, and is, in the majority of cases, the happiest life on earth.





# The Nonconformist Churches

BY

REV. JOHN OMAN, M.A., D.D., Ph.D.,  
*Principal of Westminster College, Cambridge.*

EVERY occupation ought to be a call, first, by one's own peculiar gifts, and, second, by the special service needed of him by his generation; and no task is more important for ourselves than to discover the work which will awake our keenest interest, employ our best powers and give us the assurance of well-spent lives; and none more important for society than to make evident the tasks which are truly for the public good, and keep them to the front as a continual appeal to men's best powers. This should be as true of day labour as of the professions. Yet there is more obligation to have a special call to a profession, first because there is usually more freedom of choice, and, second, because there is neither joy nor true success in any profession without gifts for it and interest in it. As a distinguished professor of medicine put it: "A man should have as much a special call to minister to human sickness as to human sin." To enter the medical profession mainly with a commercial mind is to run the risk of finding a task which will be a laborious and dull drudgery to the person himself and a very mechanical business in the distress of other people. A deeper insight into public need and a higher judgment of what is the health of society would see the same need for a call to the law, for what is more important for the health of a community than that the administration of its laws should be in the hands of wise and just, and not merely clever and specious persons? Then how

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would it be if the country took to calling people for the Press by their power to interest mankind in the right, the highest concerns, and for public life, especially Parliament, if the first quality of a leader was to be a man of understanding, who knows what our Israel ought to do? Would it not be a case of the gifts and calling of God which are without repentance? It would be more important than winning a war, or making treaties, or having the best Parliamentary forms. As long as the business is regarded as merely electing representatives who shall be echoes of public opinion there can be no security of agreement with the eternal order, without which no form of government is safe. What is needed is persons first called of God by gifts and graces, and, second, that they be discerned of men who have insight into truth and reality and devotion to righteousness.

What, in short, is wanted is the idea of office which has been the theory, and, as far as any ideal is accepted by imperfect human nature, the practice of the Protestant Churches. The theory is that first of all God calls a man by the gifts which have been given him. With these gifts comes the call to exercise them, and without them no persuasion of a call is convincing. Nor is it for himself to have the final decision. He may desire office as a good work, but if he desire it for any other reason than that it is a work imposed upon him as a challenge to his spirit, he is thereby shown not to realise its responsibility. Here as elsewhere, as Plato says, no one who desires to rule ought to be allowed to, as it plainly shows that he does not know that all responsibility is service. This is the ground of the theory that the congregation is the instrument of the Spirit for discerning spiritual gifts and the call of God. Only so does it rightly call him and impose this task upon him. And, for himself, he is not a candidate for their suffrage, and is not honoured by it or required to be grateful and submissive for it, but is through them called of God and responsible to Him.

That is the theory, and it is plain that the higher life and



guidance of the community cannot be secure on anything lower. Its leaders cannot safely be persons who are merely led, but their first duty must be to stand for principle, if necessary against the world, and those led cannot be securely guided unless they are seeking the right rather than the pleasant road, and, therefore, require in their guides knowledge and wisdom, and not mere gift of catering to their prepossessions.

Amid these possible high ministries the ordinary ministry may seem very lowly, and the Nonconformist ministry absurd to command. And its financial and material attractions generally, it may at once be admitted, are not great, and if anyone enters it with the idea of having a soft job, with the respectability attached to a black coat, he will be disillusioned, unless indeed he be an expert at making himself at ease in Zion, when he can fare comfortably in any calling. Also it is about time that parents disabused themselves of the idea that it is a specially sheltered trade to which their sons may be called by being not very robust physically or mentally, with a submissive mind to swallow accepted truth with which they are to be spoon fed, because there are few callings in which such a person will have a rougher time. There are ministries in which the main requirement still is to echo tradition and be a vehicle of grace, even in the Free Churches. But the training for the ministry in most of them makes a man sorrowfully unfit for this unquestioning task. He will find that problems are thrust upon him from without and within, and he will need all he has done to solve them when he goes out into the world and meets even working men.

But it may seem that we have here the most fatal of all objections to the calling. Suppose one starts as a boy, how is he to know what he will believe at thirty? It may be as well to make the admission that it is not a good calling in which to settle on one's lees — economically, socially, intellectually, spiritually. But, on certain conditions, that is the very thing which makes it attractive as a vocation. The first is the conviction that the thing most essential for a better

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world is better people. The second is that it is a greater thing to help men to true beliefs, high aspirations and right loyalties than to improve their outward conditions, or impose on them better laws, or force them to better conduct or, in short, to find any substitute for their own minds and consciences. The third is that a change of mind, which would give men a sense of living in the family of God would be a better security for civilisation than armies, alliances, treaties, or even a League of Nations. The fourth is that this is the good news of God which is not merely edifying but true, and that this light shines in Jesus Christ as in no other. All the Churches come far short of exemplifying this, but there has never been any other body of people to whom appeal can be made with as good hope of seeing them stand for it, day in and day out, all through life's long day, and with the assurance that eternity will complete what time fails to realise. Nonconformity, perhaps in a special degree, has its limitations and its failures, but they do not hinder its greatest success, which has been to create the congregation of faithful souls who are a fellowship to further this good news. Like all human associations, it too has its defects, yet there is nothing else in our midst which serves man's highest needs quite as faithfully, and it well deserves that a man give his best thought and fullest consecration to be a teacher and leader in the midst of it ; and if he has a message and an inspiration, nothing else will give him the same backing. If with open mind and courage he seek truth and stand for righteousness, he will not in this service need other motive, or feel he lacks reward, or grow weary in well doing.

The training for the ministries of the various Free Churches varies enormously, from an arts course in a University, which requires three years and three years more of special theological training, to a couple of years of study and on special occasions none at all. All the larger Free Churches, however, have in these days, increased their requirements and made better provision for teaching, and, what is more, this teaching is far



more in the open. The best curriculum, however, is not enough by itself, and needs besides, in the man himself, a thirst for truth, an inquiring mind, a willingness to undergo labour and stress of thought and purpose, because more and more it is possible to speak with power only by the authority of truth, and less and less does it count to be the official of any institution. But the former alone is worth doing, and it was the position of the first ambassadors of Christianity who had no professional dignity, no impressive visible Church, no authoritative New Testament, nothing but the persuasiveness of the good news of God they had to preach. Perhaps only when it thus stands alone is its power manifest; and the Nonconformist minister, who knows his business, is perhaps nearer that to-day than any body of Christian teachers since the first century.

Only the Presbyterian Churches require all their students, with few exceptions, for very special reasons, to go through the University, but that is also regarded as the normal preparation for the Congregational ministry, and, in all the other Churches, there is an increasing number of men who have had this preparation. The gain is not merely in the additional knowledge. The supreme advantage is that it is study in the open, study with the button off one's foil, while mixing with men of other callings. The theological seminary by itself is too apt to be an intellectual and social enclosure. After the University, however, it can do its own necessary task of giving special knowledge, a knowledge increasingly necessary, without withdrawing the student from the world of men to live in a world of peculiar people. One part at least of the special vocation of the ministry is to have the knowledge of special questions and training for special tasks which needs the concentrated interest of one's whole life. Therefore, one justification of his office at least is a sound preparation for it. Before entering on it a man ought to know his religious books,—if possible in the original languages—the history of Christianity, with some knowledge of other religions, the

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problems of our time, and men's highest thoughts about the highest things, and Christian doctrine, not merely as dogma, but as one vision and view of the world. Yet the theory of the Nonconformist Churches is that religion is life, and not a doing of religious services, and that the ministry is one vocation among many, which, however, proves its value as it inspires all men with the sense of their divine vocation. Therefore it may not withdraw itself from the common evils and anxieties, and burdens and sorrows of men, but approves itself, as it is human and not professional, as it is a leaven in the world, and not, as it were, a special kind of dough carefully preserved apart from it.



# Law

## (a) THE BAR

BY

SIR ERNEST E. WILD, K.C.,

*Recorder of London.*

FOR the great and attractive profession of Barrister-at-Law the aspirants are many, while probably 70 per cent. are failures. The wig and gown have much to answer for in this regard: they are so becoming, and it is only human to like to present a becoming, and withal a distinguished, appearance. Moreover, there is the traditional epithet of "learned," to which a Call to the Bar entitles its votaries. How alluring to any young man, or woman, to be arrayed in wig and gown, and to be *ipso facto* learned! The dual appeal of apparel and nomenclature accounts for a high percentage of the failures. Therefore, at the outset, let the aspirant for forensic success denude himself of both apparel and nomenclature. These are but the trappings and the suits of potential disaster. At the Bar, as in every other walk of life, it is the human being, with all his possibilities, his capabilities, his limitations, that alone counts. Not that I would abolish the garb or the epithet: both are of value as helps to strenuous endeavour: in themselves they are nothing. But it cannot too strongly be impressed upon the youth that he must examine himself, weigh himself, prepare himself, before embarking upon the perilous adventure of a Call to the Bar.

Speaking from a worldly point of view, what should be his aim? Certainly not money. A modest competence can be

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gained by any adaptable and properly-equipped young man who is called to the Bar. A comfortable income can be made by a comparative few. If money be your objective, sell hats or oil. Ambition is the keynote to forensic success. There is fame to be won. There are prizes to be secured. There is history to be made. There is—most important point of all—great and good work to be done. You will be required to give opinions which may displease your client, and perchance lose him. In you will be reposed confidences more inviolable than those of any other profession. Your standard of honour must be of the highest. While striving for success in any particular cause or matter, you must never forget that you are a Minister of Justice ; that it is your duty to co-operate with the Judge or Magistrate—never attempt to hoodwink or bamboozle him. When you cross-examine a witness you should never catch an answer, or deliberately misinterpret what the witness has inadvertently said. You must be courteous to the older practitioner and kindly to the younger. Above all, always keep your temper and preserve your poise. Oh, it is indeed a difficult profession—the Bar !

Let it be granted that your mind is made up. You intend to be called. The die is cast. How should you prepare yourself for the future ? I write as a member of the Common Law Bar, where advocacy still persists. It is apparent, therefore, that you must *learn to speak*, with reasonable fluency, coupled with argumentative ability. My advice is to seize every opportunity for talking “on your hind legs,” as the phrase goes. Join a good debating society—not one where ridiculous “points of order” obscure business. Become a member of such a body as the United Club or the Eighty Club, according to your political proclivities, and stump the country. You cannot have too much practice. It is essential that you should get used to hearing your own voice in public. And rejoice exceedingly if you suffer from nervousness *before you commence to speak*. Once your speech is begun you ought to be so interested in your subject that you lose yourself in its



development. But it is certain that the man who does not suffer torments before making any oratorical effort is predestined to mediocrity. Never forget that mere fluency is a snare. Windy rhetoric never did succeed except upon the hustings. For success at the Bar there must be matter as well as manner. There must be lucidity and brevity. You may (sometimes you should) make your point thrice to a Jury, —never more than once to a Judge. If you have one real point, discard all the minor points. The receptivity, even of the Bench, is limited.

All the time you must study, study, study. You cannot give out unless you take in. Nor should your reading be confined to law books. Knowledge of the world, of history, of letters, of poetry, of romance, is helpful. In fact, no knowledge is wasted. For an advocate has to put himself in his lay client's shoes. To-day he must be a scientist, to-morrow a greengrocer, the next day an accountant, and so on *ad infinitum*. Not that you must neglect your jurisprudence. While you are a student you will have your only opportunity to acquire Law in the abstract. Hereafter you will apply Law in the concrete. Therefore prize your short time for study.

You have nearly "finished your dinners." What is the next step? Many competent advisers prescribe twelve months in a solicitor's office. This course possesses the advantage of enabling a Barrister to see the point of view of the other branch of our profession, especially as regards the part which *Costs* play in litigation. There are Judges who fail fully to appreciate the potency of *Costs*. Most law suits could be settled but for *Costs*.

The next twelve months should be spent in the Chambers of a practising Barrister, preferably a man with a varied, but not too extensive, practice. Such a man can afford to give time and attention to his pupil's work. During this period the pupil should devote himself unremittingly to understanding all the briefs, and especially the interlocutory work, which he

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finds to his hand. He should be diligent in Judges' and Masters' Chambers ; also in Courts where any case which he has read and annotated is being heard. Diligence during this probationary period is as difficult as it is essential.

There may come the lure of a political career to student or to young Barrister. Eschew it as you value your future. Of course, I confine this advice to candidature for Parliament, —not to helping your party on the platform. Solicitors have small use for budding Chathams. The Law is a jealous mistress.

Never write a Law book. It will not pay you ; and you will thereby gain the reputation of a theoretical practitioner. What you want is that of a practical Barrister. That is why it is immaterial, and sometimes even hurtful, to gain "Honours" in examinations for the Bar. Reasonable knowledge of the Law, mastery of clear and concise expression, understanding of human nature, temper and tact : those are the things needful.

Meanwhile you are "called." No man can advise in the abstract, without knowing you personally, as to the next step. Influence will profit you little. Some, but not too much, independent income you should have, I think, enough to tide you over the few first difficult years. For it must be, for nearly all young Barristers, a waiting game. Happy the man to whom work comes gradually —so that "he is able to bear it." Unhappy the man to whom nepotism confides some heavy case, when, as sometimes happens, his leader is absent. Great is the fall of that junior.

To the young Common Law junior, just called, the choice is "Circuit or London ?" There is much to be said for circuit, provided the man has the necessary means to go circuit and to attend some country Sessions *regularly*. Spasmodic effort and casual attendance are worse than useless. Upon all circuits (except the Northern) the work is not large, and is, as regards the junior practice, to some extent in the hands of a local Bar. Moreover, train facilities have encroached upon



that *camaraderie* which once characterised circuit life. Nor are briefs handed to Counsel as late as the first morning of the Assize in the haphazard manner of my youth, when one could enjoy the circuit mess with a good digestion and a clear conscience, with the remote possibility of a brief or two on the morrow. Still, I confess to a sneaking preference for the slow and tedious method of Circuit, Sessions, and County Courts. There is, however, the danger, on the other hand, that a man may build up a connection in the country which may imperil his chances of greater things in Town.

Suppose, however, that his higher ambition, or his limited finance, or both, decide him to "stick to London." I rule out the man who can specialise, whether in Commercial, Patent, Admiralty, or any other line. I am writing to help, if may be, the General Practitioner. For the beginner in this field there are the Central Criminal Court, the London and Middlesex Sessions, the Metropolitan County or Police Courts, and perhaps a chance or two at the Law Courts in the Strand. Often that opportunity comes from "devilling," viz. taking another man's case for him without fee, merely for the invaluable experience to be gained. Then there are "poor persons" cases and Dock Defences, hard, perchance—not always—for the poor person or the man in the dock, but analogous to hospital experience in the medical profession. Of one thing I am fairly confident. It is a hopeful fact. Given competence and assiduity, to ninety-nine men out of a hundred a *chance will come*. Somehow, at some time, almost every Barrister *has his chance*. "The wind bloweth where it listeth." In this analogy the Solicitor represents the wind. Let the young Barrister see to it that he take his chance: it may not recur. I have seen men throw away four or five chances, mainly through laziness. But once the chance is taken, once opportunity is seized by the forelock, the man is made: I mean, he need not be counted among the failures. Whether he ever gets beyond a modest competence is another story.

What will be the attitude of his brethren at the Bar?

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Much generosity commingled with a little jealousy. One can forgive something to disappointment, to hope deferred ; for there are many sick hearts in our profession—and no wonder !

If a junior is firm but modest ; if he maintains an unruffled demeanour and a smiling face ; in a word, if he “plays the game,” the great brotherhood of the Bar will eventually welcome his intrusion as inevitable. To such a man a helping hand will ever be held out, even by those less fortunate whom he is passing in the race. The Bar is never backward in recognising and encouraging merit.

Briefs have commenced to come. One thing is certain, viz. that you will have too few of them or too many. There is no “happy mean” at the Bar. As a wit once remarked, either you will have all bed and no roses, or all roses and no bed. Your leisure will be too much or too little. How then are you to face the excess of work ? By concentration coupled with the knack of throwing your briefs aside and forgetting that such things as briefs exist. Never go to bed, however late the hour, without an intervening interval between the cessation of work and the wooing of sleep. Play a game of patience or read a light novel after the evening’s work is finished. Thus you can prepare for tolerable dreams.

Another practical hint. Don’t over-fag your brain by working too late. Remember that what matters most is that you should be a *fit man in the morning*. Better to understudy your facts than not to be alert when you have to face judge and witness and opposing counsel. Over-preparation is inimical to success. Until you see the witnesses you cannot correctly ascertain what the facts are. Paper can tell you little, while instructions are apt to mislead.

Careful conferences are most serviceable. Never, if it can be avoided, defer your conference until the last half-hour. That will give no time for details to be filled in. You will find that the most devoted member of the legal profession is the solicitor’s managing clerk. Upon his patience and



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assiduity the main structure of a case often depends. Give him his chance.

Above all, never permit yourself to get into a groove. Don't become a mere lawyer. Cultivate other friendships and other activities than the confines of the Inns of Court provide. Spend your vacations for choice with laymen. The bigger your world the more a man of the world will you become. This can be done without in any way severing your life from the pulsating life of your glorious profession. Never bore your wife with "shop," but consult her when you want a sound judgment upon matters of fact.

Keep yourself physically and mentally in the prime of condition. Exercise both muscles and brains. Consider the judges and other lawyers who have risen to eminence. Then you will admit how great a factor the physique plays in forensic success.

An equal factor is mental balance. Whether you are or are not destined to adorn the Bench, always cultivate well-balanced judgment.

Prizes? They are, after all, but for a handful of us.

Social Service? That is for *all* of us, and what a glorious service our unique profession renders to society. Just think! We monopolise the right of audience in His Majesty's Courts of Justice. Thereby we have helped to assure the liberty and the equality of the subject. For a nominal fee (in a pauper case for no fee at all) every citizen can receive adequate representation when his cause is arguable or his person is in peril.

There is one Law for poor and rich alike. That consummation has been brought about by the jury system (which some would undermine) and by our profession. So to you, young aspirant for a call to the Bar, I, who have been for many years in the profession, venture to say this, which is more fundamental than any of the random jottings aforesaid: place in the forefront of your aspiration the single-minded desire to do your own small part in

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maintaining the standard of British justice in our land. This you can do best by resolving to uphold the honour of a profession which, whatever cynics may say or write about it, always has been a sure and certain safeguard for an independent and ordered Democracy.



## (b) THE PROFESSION OF SOLICITOR

BY

SIR GEORGE LEWIS, Bart.

**T**HE first thing to consider is how far the law really interests the aspirant, because it is certain that no one can succeed in the law without intense perseverance.

A lad fresh from school or college will probably have but a vague idea both of the objects of the solicitor's profession and of the nature of the work which it involves. Let him, therefore, be imbued in the forefront with the assurance that the labour of a solicitor is one of honour and of importance, and that on every side, whether the work be litigious or non-litigious, it is bound up with truth and its elucidation.

The solicitor's profession is jealous of the traditions, and members are fully alive to its opportunities of use and service to the general community. Its opportunities are indeed not confined to the actual pursuit of the law, for the training which it involves opens up numerous fields in which its members can co-operate with their fellows in other paths of use and service.

Who will not think in this connection of the honours and dignities achieved by solicitors in the realm of politics? Every schoolboy knows that Mr. Lloyd George, Prime Minister at one of the great crises of our history, has risen from its ranks, and that other Cabinet Ministers and Members of both Houses of Parliament have done the same. Allied to political work is municipal work, and in this field also, whether in London or in the provinces, solicitors have, largely by their knowledge of the law and its administration, achieved success. It is

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one of the best proofs of the fine training and the opportunities which result from following the profession of a solicitor to scan the lists of honours given in recent years to deserving citizens, lists which show how many solicitors have accomplished work which has entitled them to the receipt of honours, which in their cases are bestowed for no other reason than that of merit.

It should be a duty and a pride to every successful man to assist others less fortunately placed, and there are many ways in which a solicitor can and ought to help those who have been unhappy in their lives. Only very recently the Lord Chief Justice paid a tribute to the work done by solicitors in cases brought under what are called the Poor Persons' Rules. He pointed out that members of the solicitors' branch of the legal profession had for a long time past voluntarily rendered great service in the matter, and that at the present time they are undertaking still heavier responsibilities of a similar kind than before.

It is no unworthy profession that deserves recognition of this sort, for there are many busy solicitors who make no small sacrifice to attend to such cases.

I now come to some aspects of the work of an aspiring solicitor. To qualify for the exercise of his craft he will undergo what every intending craftsman must endure with patience if he is to understand the work he is to accomplish : namely the service of his apprenticeship to an experienced practitioner. The length of his service will depend upon his earlier work and opportunities, and whether he has been competent to pass certain examinations which are open to him at school or college. Half-way through his Articles of Apprenticeship he will take the Intermediate Examination set by the Law Society, and at their close he will go up for the Final Examination, in which it is open to him to take honours and to obtain certain prizes which have been founded for candidates distinguishing themselves in the examination.



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These three, four or five years, offer a wonderful opportunity to the student both for observation of the actual work of the office, and for reading law. One of the first objects of the articled clerk should be to prove his industry and capacity to the solicitor to whom he is attached, by hard work and by making himself useful to his office. Even in a profession which some may think overcrowded there is always room for the man who brings to his task the qualities of assiduity and judgment.

It would not be possible in a contribution of this nature to deal with the multifarious work which a solicitor has to conduct and understand; putting the litigious and the non-litigious sides of it together, it seems to cover the whole field of human relations. Disputes between man and man or husband and wife, especially those which are publicly reported, will be known to every aspirant to the profession, but he will scarcely realise until he enters the profession the subtleties and the manifold details of the tasks of the solicitor.

Infinitely more cases are settled out of Court than ever come into it, and as he proceeds in his experience of the profession he will come into contact with social and commercial disputes of greater or less complexity, where also he may be called upon to exercise his faculties of adjustment and settlement. If, however, the dispute, for one reason or another, should be left to be judged in open Court, the solicitor will not only be called upon to advise with a broad perspective of the issues at stake on the merits of the dispute, but he will also have to bring to bear upon the procedure to be employed all his expert knowledge.

With regard to the non-litigious work with which so much of the time of solicitors is taken up, there is the same opportunity to win and establish the confidence of the client by the qualities of skill, patience, and understanding to which reference has been made.

I have dealt with some of the possibilities for a career and

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the opportunities of success in the solicitor's profession. There is only one royal road to that success, and that is by learning the requirements of the profession. The young student may consider the field of legal work so large and so vast that it cannot be conquered. As regards a mastery of the whole ambit of legal study this is, of course, correct, but such an acquirement is not necessary for a man who aspires to be a useful member of the solicitor's profession; and industry combined with experience will provide all that is requisite. Therefore, to face the future with a bold heart and never to forget the wisdom of a touch of humour in all things mundane, will stand the student in good stead on his way.

Observation of mankind is as indispensable to his success as are a grasp of legal principles and a familiarity with legal procedure.

A knowledge of business is another element which may contribute largely to success and efficiency; probably there is no calling in which professional and business knowledge are so closely allied as that of a solicitor. Most solicitors would be deeply offended if they were told that they were not business men, however true it is of many of them.

In penning these words of guidance, it appears to me to be appropriate to refer to a great widening of the scope of the profession which some of its members consider a very possible result in the future, and this must therefore interest those who contemplate entering the profession. I refer to what is called the fusion of the two branches of the profession. Whatever views may be entertained of the possibility of the fulfilment of what some consider to be an important reform, it cannot be denied that the prospect of uniting and amalgamating the functions of solicitor and of barrister may have a considerable attraction to some of those who have to make up their mind on the career to be taken up, and I therefore touch on it as a matter which may concern solicitors of the future as an attraction to those who feel themselves able to address the



Court as advocates, but who consider, probably very wisely, that to go to the Bar would be too great a risk to their future.

In dealing with the profession of the law and the question of its standing I do not like to leave the subject without one word by way of reference to the great Court of London, the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which decides in the last resort appeals from decisions of the Courts of His Majesty's Dominions. Does that not inspire a feeling of the magnitude of our law and its influence? In the same way I would touch by reference on another proof of the greatness of our legal system and reputation for justice in referring to an agitation recently raised, and successfully, for the appointment of an additional Judge of the Admiralty Court in London, because so many disputes relating to nautical matters all over the world, and concerning in many cases only foreigners, are by preference referred by them to be dealt with by the Admiralty Court in London, which thereby became over-congested in its work.

Before a lad selects his profession or business he will do well to bear in mind one of Shakespeare's profound utterances :

“No profit grows, where is no pleasure ta'en ;  
In brief, sir, study what you most affect.”

This will afford a sure help and guide when the great decision has to be taken. Let him be courageous and not afraid to aspire to attain a position in a profession of influence, utility, and indeed necessity, but he must choose wisely and definitely after mature reflection.

The object of these views is to help young lads to come to a decision in their start in life if they contemplate entering the solicitor's profession, and to each of them I would in conclusion add this, that those who specialise in their work are those who are likely to succeed. There are many who dabble in diverse activities, but it is the whole-time

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work of one man to succeed in the law, and few do so who fail to show full allegiance to it. If, however, a man is industrious and of sound intelligence, it is quite the exception if he does not succeed in the law and find a life of absorbing interest in his profession.



# Medicine and Surgery

BY

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## I.

### THE ATTRACTIONS.

**M**EDICINE as a career in life possesses attractions which are offered by no other profession. It is important, however, that those attractions should specially appeal to those who are selecting this profession for their life's work, for Medicine is a jealous mistress, and demands a whole-hearted and life-long devotion from its devotees.

Those who select Medicine for their career should have the wish "to be a doctor" firmly implanted, and then success is almost assured from the start.

The practitioner of Medicine is given opportunities of service to humanity which no other profession offers. In times of perilous sickness and family distress it is the doctor to whom appeal is made for help and support, and his skill and encouragement may do much to alleviate suffering and to comfort those in distress on account of the illness of those dear to them.

This aspect of Medicine is one of its great attractions. Every successful doctor, however eminent, has a clientele of patients in hospital or otherwise for whom his skill and best

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efforts are put forth in the true spirit of service and without hope of reward.

The Medical Practitioner will find his life full of interest from the mere fact that he is constantly brought closely into touch with the lives of all classes of humanity, and often at times when the human feelings are most sorely tried. The sympathetic doctor is bound to become a close student of human nature and of life in all its aspects of joy and sorrow.

Medicine should not be selected as a career on account of its financial attractions, for few doctors amass large fortunes.

On the other hand, the career of Medicine assures a moderate financial reward, and no doctor need suffer financial hardships provided that he avails himself of the numerous opportunities offered in the many branches of his profession. He can be certain of a comfortable livelihood, and this may be more safely reckoned upon than in the other great professions.

The Medical Profession, unlike most other professions, is by no means overcrowded, and sometimes there is some difficulty in finding suitable candidates for appointments with considerable financial and professional attractions. This is the case especially with regard to appointments in some of the public medical services and also in the case of appointments in various parts of the Empire abroad.

Modern Medicine has become an Applied Science, and it offers innumerable opportunities for scientific work and research.

The keen student of Science, whether of Chemistry, Physics or Biology, need never fear taking up the profession of Medicine, for he will find that his scientific knowledge gives him a grasp of many of the great problems of the Medicine of to-day. He will find in the practice of Medicine numerous opportunities of applying those principles of pure Science which are doing so much to make Medicine an exact Science.

A scientific training such as is ensured by those taking a science degree is by no means wasted time as a preliminary to the medical career.



## SIR WILLIAM WILLCOX, M.D., F.R.C.P.

The student who has had a good grounding in Science will find the study of Medicine fascinating and easy, and he will commence his career with a considerable advantage over his fellows who have been less fortunate in this respect.

The opportunities offered to the Medical Practitioner on completion of his career are innumerable.

Private practice, whether consulting or general, may be aspired to.

Appointments in the public services, such as those of Public Health, the Navy, Army, or Air Forces, are attainable without difficulty.

If travel abroad is desired, no difficulty is experienced in obtaining appointments in the Indian or Colonial Medical Services, or in the numerous industrial concerns in the many parts of the Empire.

In every human enterprise the help of the Medical Practitioner is needed, and even a Polar expedition is incomplete without one or more doctors on its staff.

The practice of Medicine provides a constant fascination to every lover of his profession, for every case of illness presents special features of interest in its origin, development, diagnosis and treatment.

Just as no two individuals are exactly alike, so it may be certainly said that every case of disease presents individual peculiarities which in some respects make it different from any previous case. This aspect of Medicine prevents its practice from ever becoming tedious or boring to the keen practitioner, for he is constantly discovering new aspects of disease in every case which he carefully watches and studies.

## II.

### QUALIFICATIONS AND TRAINING.

In the first place a preliminary general education of adequate standard is required before registration as a medical

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student. In other words, one of the Matriculation Examinations of the various Universities must be passed, or an equivalent examination such as is laid down by the regulations.

In addition, the latest regulations require that students who pass a preliminary examination in Arts in January, 1923, or later, must also pass a pre-medical examination in Chemistry or Physics before registration by the General Medical Council.

No student can be registered until he is 17 years of age, or be admitted to the Final Examinations until he is 21 years of age and has completed the prescribed course of study.

After registration the course of medical study can be commenced at any of the recognised Medical Schools.

The many Universities in the United Kingdom provide an ample choice, and in London the hospitals with attached Medical Schools may be selected from.

The Medical Curriculum extends over a period of five years, but a student who completes it within six years may be said to have done well.

In cases of students who have passed the required Preliminary Examination in Arts before January, 1923, the first year will be devoted to the study of Chemistry, Physics and Biology, and the requisite examinations must be passed if this has not already been done.

In the case of students who have passed the Preliminary Examination in Arts in January, 1923, or later, and the pre-Medical Examination in Chemistry or Physics, or in the case of University Students who have passed the First Examination in Chemistry, Physics or Biology, the succeeding two years are devoted to the study of Anatomy, Physiology and Pharmacology.

The final three years are devoted to the study of Pathology, Bacteriology, Medicine (including Forensic Medicine and Public Health), Surgery, Midwifery and Gynæcology.

A great part of the time of the final three years is spent in Clinical Study in the hospital wards.



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On account of the special facilities for Clinical Study provided by the numerous large hospitals in London, many students, after completing their preliminary medical studies elsewhere, come to London for the final three years' work. This practice has become almost universal in the case of Oxford and Cambridge medical students.

It goes without saying that the requisite examinations must be passed on completion of each stage of the curriculum before the next stage can be embarked upon.

Just as there is an ample choice of Medical Schools, so there are numerous qualifying Medical Diplomas and Degrees for the students to select from.

The General Medical Council supervises the courses of studies and examinations for the various qualifying examinations and ensure their being of a requisite standard. There is not in this country a uniform State Medical Examination.

Where a student, after qualification, desires higher degrees, these are provided by :—

The M.D. degrees of the various Universities.

The Fellowship of the Colleges of Surgeons.

The Membership and Fellowship of the Colleges of Physicians.

The Diplomas in Public Health, Tropical Medicine and other special branches of Medicine and Surgery.

### III.

#### COST OF MEDICAL EDUCATION.

The long period of five or six years required by the curriculum is of itself an important financial consideration. The actual cost of the fees for the entire Medical Curriculum varies according to the Medical School or University selected. An average figure for the London Medical Schools would be £200.

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The keen, hard-working student who has the ambition to become a doctor should not be deterred by the apparent expense of his prospective course of study. Numerous scholarships are available at the various Medical Schools and Universities which are within the grasp of the keen and determined worker.

Many of the leaders of the Medical Profession of to-day could tell thrilling stories of how they supported themselves during their medical curriculum by coaching students in the preliminary medical subjects in which they themselves were specially proficient.

The ability to overcome financial difficulties experienced by the keen but poor student often is a blessing in disguise, for after qualification he aims high and does not find difficulty in climbing up the ladder to that position in his profession to which he aspires.

After obtaining a medical qualification it is necessary for the successful student to have his name put on the Register of the General Medical Council without delay. The privileges of the Medical Profession are only afforded to those who are on the Medical Register.

After becoming qualified and registered a student will be wise to hold resident hospital appointments, and so gain valuable practical experience in those branches of the profession in which he intends to practise.

Whenever possible, at least a year should be spent in postgraduate study of this kind immediately after qualifying.

The experience and confidence gained by holding resident hospital appointments is of the utmost value, and the time spent will be repaid a hundredfold.

### IV.

#### PRIVILEGES.

The registered Medical Practitioner, *ipso facto*, receives a high social status in the community, and his professional position is one which ensures respect and public esteem.



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The General Medical Council is appointed by H.M. Privy Council to supervise Medical Education and Registration, and through its powers certain privileges devolve upon those whom it admits to registration.

Only registered Medical Practitioners are permitted by law to sign various Medical Certificates, such as those relating to Infectious Diseases, Births and Deaths, and the Forms under the Acts dealing with Public Health, Vaccination, Workmen's Compensation, and the Factory and Education Acts ; incidentally they are exempted from service on juries and other public services to which the general public are liable.

There is no legal provision for preventing unqualified persons from undertaking medical practice, but the special privileges accorded to registered Medical Practitioners are withheld from those who are unqualified, and thereby the Medical Profession receives indirect protection.

### V.

#### REMUNERATION.

The remuneration received by Medical Practitioners varies according to the branch of practice embarked upon.

The General Practitioner will command an income depending on the type of practice which he selects.

In the poorer districts of the Metropolis and great cities the price of purchase of a practice may not be high, and the income accruing may range from £500 to £2,000 or £3,000 per annum ; but the work is very hard, and there are few social amenities to compensate for the unceasing calls upon him under very trying conditions.

In country districts the work is hard, and a great amount of travelling is required. The maximum income varies according to the type of practice, but usually the country doctor must rest content with an income of from £500 to

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£1,000 per annum. Some compensation for the strenuous work may be derived from the pleasures of a country life.

In London and the large towns the General Practitioner may command an income of anything from £500 to £5,000 per annum, according to the type of practice. It must be borne in mind, however, that the purchasing price of a rich practice is proportionately high.

In consulting practice the successful Physician may command an income of anything up to £10,000 per annum; very few exceed this figure.

Just as in the case of Barristers, the successful men are in the minority, and a great number of Consulting Physicians find some difficulty in meeting the heavy expenses entailed by their position.

The Consulting Surgeon belongs to the most highly remunerated class of the Medical Profession. The fees received for surgical operations in private practice are such that a successful Consulting Surgeon may earn an income of from £10,000 to £50,000 per annum. It must be remembered, however, that, as in the case of Consulting Physicians, by no means all Consulting Surgeons are successful from a financial point of view.

There are many who think that the fees for Consulting Medical and Surgical Practice are disproportionate. It has been claimed, however, that the Surgical fees should not be lowered, but the Medical fees increased.

In the public services the remuneration for professional work in the Navy, Army, Air Force, and Colonial Services corresponds approximately to those in similar positions in the combatant and civil services. The work is interesting, and perhaps not so exacting as that of general practice.

After twenty years' successful service a pension of from £500 to £800 per annum is to be expected, and the retired officer may now embark on a medical practice of his choice.

Very often, however, the absence of constant clinical work during his official service deters a man from embarking on



clinical practice, and he prefers some less remunerative administrative post, though these are difficult to obtain.

In the Public Health Service there is a keen competition for appointments, and this is somewhat remarkable, since the remuneration is very inadequate for the high qualifications demanded, and for the inestimable benefit to the public accruing from the work of the skilled expert in Hygiene. A Medical Practitioner with high special qualifications in Public Health will usually obtain as his first appointment a post of value about £600 per annum. The Medical Office of Health appointments of large towns and districts usually possess remuneration of from £800 to £1,200 a year, though in a few exceptional cases this figure is exceeded. In the case of Public Health appointments not directly under Government Departments the provision of a pension comes from a contribution on the salary of the Medical Officer.

## VI.

### WHAT ARE THE ESSENTIALS FOR SUCCESS?

Honesty, truthfulness, tact and sympathy will go far to inspire confidence and help a medical man in his career. These are qualities which may be acquired outside a Medical School, but they are nevertheless invaluable.

Professional ability and experience are acquired by close study, keen interest and hard work. These qualities give a doctor that calm and resource in emergencies and that confidence in himself which is unconsciously imparted to his patients and their friends.

Much has been talked of the "bedside manner" as being a necessary equipment of a successful doctor. The patients and their friends are by no means unobservant, and the most pleasing bedside manner will be that which is evidenced by the quiet confidence and sympathy born of knowledge and practical experience.

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After becoming qualified the young medical man has to decide upon the details of his future professional career. If he selects one of the public services a useful and successful career is assured by steady and loyal work, and after a period of service a pension may be obtainable when a man is by no means too old to do further work. The financial rewards are not so great perhaps as those offered by private practice, but, on the other hand, the risks are less, and the worries and stress of professional life are less.

Private Practice may be General or Special. If special consulting practice is selected the aspirant to this must be prepared to live laborious days and scorn delights for many years before success awaits him.

The majority of medical men after qualification take up the career of General Medical Practitioner.

It is this great group of the Medical Profession who bear the burden and heat of the day, and it is they who are brought into most intimate contact with the sick and suffering of the Empire.

It has often been said, and I think with great truth, that the General Medical Practitioner of this country has nobly upheld the highest traditions of the Medical Profession, and his professional skill and high character form an example to the Medical Practitioners of the world.



# Dental Surgery

BY

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**N**O one, other than the registered medical man, can practise dentistry in this country unless his name is inscribed on the Dentists' Register. To be registered it is necessary to obtain a Degree or Diploma in Dentistry granted by the various examining bodies. A fee of £5 is charged for admission to the Register, and on or before January 1st of each year a further fee of £5 has to be paid for the retention of the name on the Register.

Degrees and Diplomas in Dentistry are granted by the Universities of London, Durham, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol, Liverpool, Dublin, Queen's University Belfast, National University of Ireland, and St. Andrew's; by the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of England, Edinburgh, and Ireland, and by the Royal Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow.

The course of study and the examinations of the various Universities and Royal Colleges differ in certain details, but they all must satisfy the recommendations of the General Medical Council, which is the controlling body of Dental Education.

To obtain a Degree or Diploma an examination in general education must first be passed. The General Medical Council requires that the examination must include the following

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subjects : (1) English, (2) Mathematics (Elementary), (3) a language other than English, and (4) an additional subject or subjects to be chosen from the following, viz. History, Geography, Physical Science, Natural Science, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French, German, or other language accepted for the purpose.

The scope and standard of the examination must be equivalent to a recognised Matriculation Examination of a British University.

The requirements of the Universities and Medical Licensing Corporations differ, and it is therefore needful for the student to apply for information relating to the Preliminary Examination of the University or Licensing Corporation he selects.

The requirements of the Preliminary Examination in general education being satisfied, it is then necessary to pass an examination—known as the Pre-Medical Examination—in Elementary Chemistry and Elementary Physics, which is conducted or recognised by one of the Licensing Bodies, *i.e.* University or Corporation. The instruction in Chemistry or Physics can be obtained during the school period. The student should write to the body whose qualifications he desires to obtain for information in regard to its requirements for this examination.

When the Pre-Medical Examination has been passed the individual should commence his professional study either by going to a school or schools recognised by the General Medical Council or by becoming a pupil of a registered dentist. He should then register as a dental student, and after that must devote at least four years to professional study ; of these, three years must be spent at a school or schools recognised by the General Medical Council. For practical purposes this instruction may be considered under two headings : (1) General Medicine and Surgery ; (2) Dental Surgery.

1. The instruction in General Medicine and Surgery must be obtained at a medical school and general hospital, and be



spread over at least two years. The student must attend courses of instruction in :—

- (a) Chemistry and Physics in their application to Medicine.
- (b) Elementary Biology.
- (c) Human Anatomy and Physiology.
- (d) General Pathology.
- (e) Medicine and Surgery (Theoretical and Practical).

The training at the medical school and general hospital is not so wide in its scope as that required of the medical student, but it is sufficient to give the student a good ground-work of the science of Medicine.

2. The instruction in Dental Surgery may be conveniently divided into two parts : (a) Mechanical ; (b) Surgical.

(a) The mechanical instruction is a most important part of the training of the future Dental Surgeon. The student learns to make artificial dentures and adapt them to the mouth. In the course of his work he obtains a practical knowledge of many branches of mechanics, and the technique he acquires is of great value to him, not only in his professional capacity but in many other directions. The General Medical Council requires that the instruction in Dental Mechanics shall be for not less than 2,000 hours and spread over twenty-four calendar months. Part or whole of the course may be taken as a pupil with a registered dentist, provided that time spent as a private pupil shall be at least twice the time required for the corresponding instruction taken at a dental school. This instruction in Dental Mechanics may be taken prior to passing the examination in General Education and the Pre-Medical Examination, but the time is not counted as part of the four years of professional study which must be taken after passing the Pre-Medical Examination. Certain of the Licensing Bodies insist that a part of the mechanical instruction shall be taken in the mechanical department of a recognised dental school.

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(b) The courses of instruction in Dental Surgery must be attended at a recognised dental school, and embrace the following subjects: Dental Anatomy and Physiology, Practical Dental Histology, Dental Pathology and Surgery, Materia Medica and Therapeutics, Anæsthetics and Radiology.

The training in Operative and Clinical Dental Surgery is spread over two years, and consists in carrying out operations on the teeth and acquiring a clinical knowledge of Dental Surgery.

During the four years of professional study certain examinations, written, oral, and practical, have to be passed, ending with a final test in Dental Surgery and Pathology.

In the choice of a career the cost of education must be considered. The fees at the different teaching institutions vary within a comparatively small range. As an example, we may take the approximate cost for the Diploma of Dental Surgery of the Royal College of Surgeons as set out in the calendar of our oldest dental school. It is as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
(1) For two years' mechanical tuition and two years' dental hospital practice and lectures .. .. .	200	0	0
Instruction in Chemistry and Physics	13	13	0
(2) Fee at the General Hospital ..	68	5	0
(3) Instruments and tools .. .. .	60	0	0
(4) Books .. .. .	15	0	0
(5) Examination Fees .. .. .	21	0	0

The cost is spread about equally over the four years of study.

So far the reader has been given a brief outline of the work required of the would-be Dental Surgeon, but a few words of advice may be offered to those who wish to make Dental Surgery their life work. In every branch of life certain qualities are necessary if real success is to be attained. Dental Surgery is a very personal profession—one is in close touch with patients, and a qualification for success is "personality."



The term is difficult to define, but the individual who is of a clean, manly type, fresh and full of life, is more likely to succeed than one who is slow, dull, and morbid in disposition. In the next place, we must never lose sight of the fact that the practice of Dental Surgery is largely mechanical in character—the manufacture and adaptation of artificial dentures, the operations of filling and extraction, all call for the mechanical sense: it follows, therefore, that only those who are of a mechanical turn of mind should choose Dental Surgery as a career. Many failures are due to lack of mechanical sense in the individual.

The work is close, confined to a small area, and demands good eyesight. Let no one choose Dentistry whose eyesight is defective.

Again, the work is tedious—one is often dealing with nervous, sensitive individuals, patients are often trying and exacting. All these things call for a considerable degree of self-control on the part of the practitioner, and individuals of highly-strung, nervous temperaments do not make good dental practitioners.

The work being indoors, it is not a profession for one with a tendency to lung troubles.

Good health, a cheery disposition, a sympathetic nature, and a mechanical disposition are some of the qualities which go to make a successful practitioner.

A few words about the opportunities Dental Surgery offers for personal success. First, there are the appointments to the public services.

#### (a) THE ROYAL NAVAL DENTAL SERVICE.

The number of Dental Officers at the present time is forty-eight, and the appointments are as the result of competition. Successful candidates become Acting-Surgeon-Lieutenants (D), and pass through a special course of instruction, and if they obtain the necessary qualifying marks

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at the subsequent examination are confirmed in the rank as Surgeon-Lieutenants (D), with pay commencing at about £400. Promotion to the rank of Surgeon-Lieutenant-Commander (D) follows on the completion of six years' satisfactory service, and after nine years' service in the higher rank the pay, which is increased triennially, rises to over £750 per annum. There is one post of Surgeon-Commander (D), the pay of which rises to over £900.

The age for entry is 21 to 28 years, and, after four years' full pay service an officer may withdraw with a gratuity varying in amount in proportion to the time served, or he may retire at the age of 40 years with the half-pay of his rank and seniority, or may continue to serve until reaching the age for the compulsory retirement of Naval Officers of his rank, when he is entitled to retired pay according to a definite scale.

### (b) THE ARMY DENTAL CORPS.

The present strength of officers of the Corps is 131, comprising one Lieutenant-Colonel, eight Majors, and the remainder Captains and Lieutenants. A proportion of officers from the Corps are attached to the Royal Air Force for a period of four years. First appointments to the Corps are made in the rank of Lieutenant (on probation), as a result of competitive examination, and the commissions are confirmed after a special course of instruction has been satisfactorily undertaken.

The pay, with allowances, at present ranges from about £500 for Lieutenants on joining to about £850 for Majors of fifteen years' service, with increased allowances for married officers. The rates of pay, half-pay, and retired pay are subject to slight revision according to the cost of living. Promotion is made to the rank of Captain after three and a half years' service and to that of Major and Lieutenant-Colonel by selection.

Officers of the Corps are required to spend a proportion of



## SIR FRANK COLYER, F.R.C.S.

their service abroad, the stations to which they may be sent including India, Egypt, China, Malta, and Gibraltar.

Officers may retire voluntarily on retired pay after twenty years' service.

Earlier retirement on gratuity may be allowed as follows :—

After 8½ years' service in the Corps	..	£1,000
„ 15 „ „ „	..	£1,800
„ 18 „ „ „	..	£2,500

### (c) SCHOOL DENTISTRY.

There are a large number of appointments as School Dentists under the Education Authorities. The appointments are whole-time or half-time, the stipend is at the rate of £500 to £600 per annum for the school year of forty-four weeks. These school appointments are much sought after, and those with some experience of private practice are more likely to obtain them than the newly qualified. In the near future there will probably be a large increase in the number of appointments under the Education Committee and authorities engaged in supervising the health of the community.

The Services and civil appointments offer a fair stipend, and in considering the amount received it must be remembered that it is "clear profit," and that £600 clear corresponds to the net profits of a practice returning £1,000 to £1,200 a year gross.

The returns from private practice naturally vary considerably, and are dependent largely upon the district in which the practice is carried on. One may, I think, safely say that an individual possessing ordinary skill and personality should be able, after a few years, to look forward to a net income of at least £1,000. Higher incomes come to the more successful, but Dental Surgeons making over £3,000 a year are few in number.

There are no big prizes such as come to the successful

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surgeon or physician, but there is this to be remembered—a Dental Surgeon usually acquires a fairly steady income sooner than the specialist in other branches of medicine.

Dental Surgery is a profession and not a trade, and must be regarded as such if one is to obtain the full enjoyment of one's work. Acquirement of knowledge should not end with the hospital career, but should be continued all through life: if that state of mind is acquired, then as a career it will bring mental satisfaction. The Dental Surgeon can be of great service to the community, partly by helping to relieve the ravages of disease and partly by helping to teach the ways to prevent disease. With the passage of years he sees the results of his work and obtains the increasing confidence of his patients; this alone is some reward and satisfaction.

In the above short sketch I have tried to give an account of Dentistry as it appears to me after many years of practice. In the future the profession of Dental Surgery will take a higher place in the eyes of the public, and will contribute more and more to the maintenance of a high standard of health of the community.



# Veterinary Science

BY

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THERE can be no doubt that the treatment of disease in animals is one of the oldest of the arts or sciences. It must have had its beginnings soon after man had succeeded in the domestication of what we call farm animals, and therefore long before the period at which the ascertainable history of the human race begins. There is evidence, moreover, that the treatment of diseased animals had become a profession or calling in the Assyrian Empire more than 4,000 years ago, and that the fees of those who practised it were fixed by law.

In one sense, however, Veterinary Science is quite modern, and takes us no farther back than the middle of the eighteenth century, when the first veterinary college was founded, viz. at Lyons in the year 1762. Previous to that no provision had been made for the systematic study of animal diseases, or for ensuring that new knowledge would be disseminated and passed on to the next generation. The foundation of a veterinary college or school was the first step towards the creation of a veterinary profession in the sense of a body of men devoting their lives to the study and practice of what now began to deserve the name of a science. During the succeeding thirty years thirteen other veterinary schools were established in Europe, and the second last of these was the Royal Veterinary College, which was founded in London in 1792. That remained the only institution devoted to the teaching of Veterinary Science in Great Britain until 1823, when the present Royal (Dick) Veterinary college was founded in Edinburgh.

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The other similar institutions now in existence in this country are the Glasgow Veterinary College, the Veterinary College in Dublin, and the Veterinary School of the University of Liverpool.

Up to the year 1844 the veterinary colleges in London and Edinburgh not only taught students but also examined them or had control of the examinations, and granted Diplomas or certificates setting forth the special ability of those who obtained them to practise the veterinary art.

Even before the foundation of the veterinary colleges in London and Edinburgh there were many men throughout the country who made a living, or supplemented a living, by treating diseased animals. The great majority of such men possessed no more knowledge of the anatomy, physiology, or pathology of the domesticated animals than had been in existence in the dark ages. These were the so-called "Farriers," and the object of the veterinary colleges was gradually to replace them by Veterinary Surgeons who had received a scientific and practical training.

An important fact in the history of the veterinary profession in this country was the creation of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons in 1844. It is unfortunate that, owing to the similarity of the designations, this body is still frequently confounded with the previously mentioned Royal Veterinary College.

Its formation by Royal Charter in the year mentioned united all the qualified Veterinary Surgeons then in existence in a single corporate body, to which was committed the right "to fix the times and place and manner of examining students who had been educated at the existing veterinary colleges in London and Edinburgh, or such other veterinary colleges as might afterwards be founded, to regulate the nature of such examinations, and to appoint persons to examine and determine upon the fitness and qualifications of students who might be desirous of becoming members of the corporate body." The affairs of the College are conducted by means of a Council of



thirty-two members, who are elected by the votes of the entire profession, and of whom eight retire annually.

It is important to notice that the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons is not a teaching institution, and that the duty of imparting professional education to those who intend to become Veterinary Surgeons belongs exclusively to the five veterinary colleges previously mentioned.

The next important event in the history of veterinary education was the passing of the Veterinary Surgeons Act in 1881. In the preceding years much had been done to achieve the purpose for which the veterinary colleges were founded, viz. to provide the country with men specially qualified to practise the veterinary art; but progress was hindered by the fact that there were still to be found throughout the country numerous persons who, without any professional training, began to practise and to describe themselves as Veterinary Surgeons. The object of this Act was "to enable persons requiring the aid of a Veterinary Surgeon for the cure or prevention of disease in or injuries to horses and other animals to distinguish between qualified and unqualified Veterinary Surgeons." With this object, it prohibits anyone from using the title of Veterinary Surgeon or any other designation stating that he is specially qualified to practise, unless he has been educated at one of the veterinary colleges and received the Diploma granted by the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons. The granting of this protection of the title of Veterinary Surgeon followed the precedent of the "Medical Act," which in almost identical terms prohibited the use by unqualified persons of any title or designation implying special qualifications to practise medicine.

#### THE VETERINARY SURGEON'S WORK.

The number of horses of all ages in Great Britain is probably about one and a half millions, and of cattle of all ages seven millions. These, of course, are the domesticated animals that

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have the largest individual value, and it is with the treatment of their diseases and accidents that Veterinary Surgeons in private practice are mainly occupied. But there are also twenty million sheep and three million pigs, and the higher value of these animals and increasing knowledge regarding the prevention and cure of the diseases to which they are liable is steadily adding to the work of the veterinary profession throughout the country. Lastly, there is the practice connected with the diseases of dogs and cats, which now to a large extent compensates for the loss occasioned through the displacement of the horse by the development of motor traction.

Just as is the case with lawyers and doctors, a considerable number of Veterinary Surgeons are not engaged in private practice, but hold public appointments with duties relating to the treatment or prevention of animal diseases. The most important of these are the officers of the Royal Army Veterinary Corps, the members of the veterinary staff of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, Veterinary Surgeons who hold municipal or county appointments, teachers in the veterinary colleges, and those who hold civil veterinary appointments in India and the Colonies.

It ought to be stated, however, that a very large share of the work under the Contagious Diseases of Animals Acts is carried out by Veterinary Surgeons who are also engaged in private practice.

Last of all, there is the small but gradually increasing number of those who are devoting the whole or the greater part of their time to research. There are now in existence in Great Britain four institutes devoted to research in the pathology of the domesticated animals. The first of these is under the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the second in connection with the Royal Veterinary College, London, the third at the University of Cambridge, and the fourth in Edinburgh, in connection with the Animal Diseases Research Association.

Whatever may be thought of the state of other callings, it



can be stated that the veterinary profession at the present time is not an over-crowded one. The proof of that is that there are few or no unemployed Veterinary Surgeons, except those who have disqualifications that would interfere with their employment in any calling.

The total number of members on the Register of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons is, in round numbers, 3,500, and about 400 of these do not reside or practise in the United Kingdom.

Nearly all the other countries of Europe have a larger number of Veterinary Surgeons in proportion to the number and value of their domesticated animals.

It may be asked: "What are the qualities that make for success in the veterinary profession?"

Passing over those that are essential for success in any walk of life, the first is an innate love for animals and an aptitude for handling and understanding them. These are mentioned as if they form a single characteristic, for they generally go together. Those who are conscious that they lack them should seek to enter some other profession.

Obviously from the nature of the Veterinary Surgeon's work a faculty for close observation is another desirable element in his mental equipment.

It may be well to say that no youth, however high his intellectual ability may appear to be, need be considered too good to be put into the veterinary profession. Pasteur, one of the world's greatest scientists, and from his discoveries one of the greatest benefactors to man and the domesticated animals, is reported to have expressed regret that he had not received the professional education of a Veterinary Surgeon.

### HOW TO BECOME A VETERINARY SURGEON.

Before an intending Veterinary Surgeon can be admitted to one of the veterinary colleges he must pass one of the examinations in general education prescribed by the Royal

## VETERINARY SCIENCE

College of Veterinary Surgeons. These examinations are the same as those required for admission to the study of medicine at one of the Universities or medical schools in this country. Having passed one of these examinations, he can be enrolled as a student at one of the veterinary colleges, and commence the course of study prescribed for those who desire to be admitted to the veterinary profession. The minimum period of study required in order to obtain the Diploma of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons is three years and nine months. The course is divided into four sessions, and an examination has to be passed at the end of each session.

As previously explained, the conduct of the examinations is in the hands of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, and the Board appointed by them examine the students from all the veterinary colleges.

Although the Diploma (M.R.C.V.S.) of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons must be taken by everyone who wishes to practise as a Veterinary Surgeon in the United Kingdom, it is not the only qualification in Veterinary Science obtainable in this country. The University of London in 1904 instituted a special Science Degree adapted to the requirements of veterinary students (B.Sc.), which may, in part, be taken concurrently with the qualifying Diploma. This University Degree does not carry the right to be placed on the Register of Veterinary Surgeons, and part of the course of study prescribed for it must be postgraduate. As it connotes a higher standard of knowledge in certain subjects than the Diploma it is a distinct advantage to possess it, especially to those who intend to become teachers or to engage in research.

Similar degrees are also granted by the Universities of Edinburgh and Liverpool.

Intending students can obtain full information from the Secretaries of any of the veterinary colleges, or from the Secretary of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons, 10 Red Lion Square, London, W.C. 1.



# Science

BY

MAJOR A. CHURCH, D.S.O., M.C., B.Sc. (Lond.),

*Secretary National Union of Scientific Workers,  
Member Medical Research Council.*

THOSE who embark on the profession of Science need not fear that their outlook will necessarily become warped, that there is less scope in Science for creative imagination than in literature, music, painting, or sculpture. On the contrary, there is no field of art which presents so much scope for transcendent originality and creative genius as the field of scientific research. There is no study which is calculated to have so profound and so beneficial an influence upon the human mind as the study of Science. There is no field of activity from which the scientific outlook can be excluded. And nowadays "big business" would be appalled if accused of being non-scientific in outlook.

The scientific aspirant who looks forward to a life of study, without necessarily desiring to apply the knowledge thus acquired to any of the mundane occupations of life, will find scope for such a career in the schools and higher educational institutions of this country and the various British Dominions and Dependencies. Among the higher educational institutions must be included the great museums, where scientific staffs are maintained and where the facilities for research or specialised study are not inconsiderable.

The teaching profession is the subject of a separate contribution in this volume, so that it will suffice here to say that a growing number of men and women who have received

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the hall-mark of a science degree from a University, and have, in addition, taken a course in Pedagogy, are finding a vocation in the primary and secondary schools of the country. Those whose knowledge of our educational system is culled from the popular Press would be greatly surprised to find how great a change has taken place within the last two decades in the material equipment and the staffs of our primary schools, and the effect of the change upon the minds of the rising generation. And there is little doubt that this desirable result has been brought about by the growing realisation of the importance of Experimental Science as a school subject.

But the duties of a schoolmaster or schoolmistress leave no time for scientific research. And those who are attracted to fundamental research will do well to strive for the various posts offered by the Universities and museums, where there are facilities and leisure for the acquisition of new knowledge, and where there is reasonable security of tenure. The rewards for such posts are in keeping with the non-hazardous nature of the occupation, that is to say, they are distinctly moderate. There are some institutions where the yearly salaries attached to the professorial chairs are as high as £1,500, but the average salary of a University professor in Great Britain is nearer £1,000. It must be borne in mind, moreover, that these are the "plums" of the Universities, and that many of those who hold them are men of outstanding ability and international reputation. Only a few members of University staffs can attain such a position. The majority of scientific workers in Universities, therefore, can never hope to obtain what is considered, nowadays, a reasonable competence. Much stress has been laid upon the advantages offered by a University career, particularly the unquestioned social position which University lecturers occupy and the leisure time at their disposal. Against these must be set off the difficulties of maintaining a social position, or of taking advantage of long vacations to travel abroad without the necessary means.

The lot of scientific workers in our State-maintained



museums is rather more fortunate. They are established Civil Servants, and their salaries are relatively higher than those of University lecturers. They have no teaching duties. This, however, is not all to their advantage because, although they can devote themselves exclusively to research, they are deprived of the stimulus which contact with the young, bright, and eager students who now crowd the laboratories at our seats of learning provides.

Only a small proportion of the yearly number of students who graduate in Science at our Universities take up appointments in any of the above-mentioned institutions. The majority find their way into various central and Local Government Laboratories and scientific departments, or into the research and technical departments of industrial undertakings, or join the growing number of scientific consultants. A few take up appointments abroad, mainly with the Dominion Governments or in the Crown Colonies and Protectorates. Most of these are concerned primarily with the application of Science. This does not mean that the opportunities for scientific research are limited. On the contrary, there is just as great scope for enterprise in the field of Applied Science as there is in the domain of what is sometimes called "pure" research. It is noteworthy that a large number of scientific discoveries of a fundamental character have been made in recent years in laboratories attached to Government departments or industrial workshops by investigators whose first consideration has been the improvement or discovery of processes for immediate application or the solution of problems of immediate practical significance.

Considerations of space will not permit of more than a brief survey of the openings for scientific workers in the service of the State. As might be expected, the number of State scientific appointments has increased since the outbreak of the last war. It was only then that the nation realised how greatly the efficiency of our fighting services depended, not only upon the quality and efficiency of our fighting personnel,

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but also upon the intensive application of Science to warfare.

Moreover, it was realised that our efficiency as a fighting nation depended to a great extent upon the intensive application of Science in our great industries. Consequently, in addition to strengthening the scientific departments of the three fighting services, a Committee of the Privy Council for Scientific and Industrial Research was appointed in 1915 by Order in Council, for the organisation and development of such activities, and this led to the creation of a separate department of State to undertake these responsibilities.

*Whitaker's Almanack*, in the section devoted to "Government and Public Offices," provides a reliable guide to those who desire information regarding the various departments which employ Scientific Officers.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, in addition to retaining the services of scientific and technical advisers, and a staff of persons of scientific standing, engaged mainly in administrative, advisory, or executive duties, wholly maintains a Fisheries Investigation Laboratory at Lowestoft, a Veterinary Research Laboratory at Weybridge, the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, the Ordnance Survey Department, Southampton, and a Plant Pathology Laboratory at Harpenden, for all of which scientific and technical qualifications are a necessary condition of appointment to the staffs. Other scientific institutions are partly maintained by the same Ministry, foremost among which are the world-famous Rothamsted Experimental Station, which is engaged upon plant-breeding and plant disease problems, the Agricultural Departments attached to various Universities, the Fruit Research Stations at East Malling, Kent, and Long Ashton, near Bristol. For most of these posts a knowledge of the biological sciences is demanded.

The Government Laboratory in Clement's Inn maintains a large staff of chemists whose work consists largely of the examination and investigation of compounds and materials



dealt with by the Board of Customs and Excise, from the personnel of which the chemical staff used to be recruited.

The Ministry of Health provides openings for chemists as alkali inspectors, bacteriologists, and engineers; and a few inspectors of explosives, for which long technical experience in the production, care, and handling of chemical compounds is essential, are maintained on the establishment of the Home Office. A small scientific staff of chemists and assayers is to be found at the Royal Mint, and openings for mathematicians and physicists occur at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich. The examining staff of the Patent Office, Chancery Lane, consists entirely of scientific and technical experts, and only those with a thorough training in Science and Technology could hope to be successful in the examination to which applicants for such appointments have to submit.

A large staff of technical experts is maintained by the Post Office in connection with the telegraph, telephone, and cable departments, and there is naturally a growing tendency to recruit these officers from those whose technical and scientific training has been obtained at the Universities. To keep abreast also of the latest developments in cable and wireless transmission the Post Office has found it necessary to establish a Research Laboratory. Another department where a fairly large staff of technical officers are employed and a few scientists is the Office of Works and Buildings. The technical officers are engaged mainly on engineering and architectural work, while the Scientific Officers include, quaintly enough, those at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Edinburgh.

Passing reference has already been made to the growth of the Scientific Departments of the Admiralty, the War Department and the Air Ministry. There are Research Laboratories at Teddington, at Holton Heath in Dorset, at the Signal School at Portsmouth, a Ballistics Section in London, all of which are staffed by scientific investigators, and under the direction of a man of the highest scientific attainment. In all these laboratories there are openings for University men

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with first-class degrees in Science and capacity for original investigation.

In addition, openings occur for chemists and physicists in the metallurgical laboratories, and in the Royal Naval Cordite Factory, and the Inspection Department at Holton Heath.

The War Office controls a large Research Department at Woolwich, at which investigations are carried out in connection with explosives, propellents, chemical signals, metals, varnishes and paints, interior and exterior gun ballistics, among other things. It controls also a Chemical Warfare Laboratory at Porton, a cordite and gunpowder factory at Waltham, and a chemical inspection department at Woolwich. Chemists predominate in these establishments, but there are a fair number of openings for physicists and mathematicians.

An almost bewildering variety of problems is dealt with in the research laboratories and scientific departments controlled by the Air Ministry.

Most of these researches are concentrated in the laboratories of the Royal Aircraft Establishment, Farnborough, and the sectional organisation follows closely the model of the National Physical Laboratory, Teddington.

Through the Colonial Office, the Crown Agents for the Colonies and the India Office a large number of appointments are made to scientific posts in the dependencies. The principal industry of the British Empire being agriculture, ever-increasing demands are being made for its agricultural development, and this involves the employment of a large number of agricultural officers, with special qualifications in one or other of the following: bio-chemistry, physics in relation to soil problems, botany, bacteriology, entomology, protozoology. Forestry research is increasing now that the relation of forests to soil aeration and water conservation is better appreciated by Colonial administrations. Another field of activity for the Scientist which is being developed is that in connection with the study of native habits, customs, religions, traditional occupations, etc. These Colonial posts



are very attractive to the young scientist, inasmuch as they not only present an amazing field for individual endeavour, but they offer also opportunities for other forms of adventure, and not infrequently lead to careers outside the Civil Service.

Until recently under the Colonial Office, but now administered by the Department of Overseas Trade, is the scientific staff of the Imperial Institute. This Institute has lately been re-organised, and now houses the Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau. The Imperial Institute has been acting for some years as the co-ordinating link between the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, the Dependencies and the Dominions.

The salaries attached to appointments in these applied research establishments vary considerably. Those given in the following table are those which obtain at the National Physical Laboratory, and may be taken as a rough guide :—

<i>Numbers of Appointments.</i>	<i>Grade.</i>	<i>Salary.</i>
1	Director .. ..	£1,500 plus C.S. Bonus.
8	Superintendents ..	£800-50-£1,000 ..
9	Principal Assistants ..	£650-25-£750 ..
20	Senior Assistants ..	£500-25-£600 ..
55	Assistants .. ..	£250-20-£450 ..
35	Junior Assistants ..	£175-15-£235 ..

To the basic salaries given in the table must be added the bonus based on the cost of living index. At present the bonus on a salary of £250 is £125, on £500 about £200, on £750 about £225.

Finally, we have to consider the openings for scientific workers in industry and consultative practice. A large

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number of good appointments have been made by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, which has organised co-operative research associations for the various branches of industry. There are research associations in the textile industries, in the iron and steel industries, in the electrical industries, motor-car industry and the rubber industry, as well as several others of minor importance. These co-operative research associations (of which a full list may be obtained on application to the Secretary of the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, Old Queen Street, London) are partly supported by State contributions until such time as the industries are sufficiently alive to the importance of research to support it wholly out of their own contributions. Besides these co-operative research associations, a large number of industrial firms possess their own research laboratories.

The British Dyestuffs Corporation maintains very large research departments at its works at Huddersfield and Manchester; the various chemical undertakings with which Sir Alfred Mond is associated also maintain very large laboratories in connection with their manufactures; Sir Robert Hadfield maintains one of the best equipped metallurgical laboratories in the country at his Sheffield works.

Then there are various laboratories maintained by such firms as Vickers, Armstrong-Whitworth, Nobel Industries, and other Government contractors. This list could be multiplied indefinitely. It is safe to make the assertion that an industrial firm has little chance of success nowadays unless it is prepared to develop on scientific lines.

Generally speaking, the salaries which are paid to the scientific workers in the State-supported industrial co-operative research associations are rather better than those which obtain in State departments. So also are those which are paid by individual firms to scientific specialists in connection with their undertakings at home and abroad. But the salaries



paid in the chemical industry, mainly due to the fact that there are more chemists being trained in our Universities and technological institutions than any other type of scientific worker, are at a comparatively low level. There are "plums," of course. The Managing Director of the British Dyestuffs Corporation, himself a chemist, receives a salary of £5,000. Such salaries are exceptional, and until it is the rule rather than the exception for scientific workers to occupy controlling positions in industry—and for the sake of industry it is hoped that the day is not far distant when they will—the salaries of Scientists will continue to be, generally speaking, lower than those of members of other professions.

For practically all the positions enumerated above a long and arduous apprenticeship is demanded. Partial specialisation begins at the age of 16, after the student has passed the qualifying examination for entry to a University. At least three, and usually four or five years, are spent at the University in obtaining a degree qualification and subsequent research experience. The period of apprenticeship, therefore, is at least as long now for scientific workers as for qualified medical practitioners and members of the legal profession.

Enough has been said to show that "blessing and honour and glory and power" are not the usual rewards even of the greatest men of science. The glittering prizes of worldlings rarely fall to their lot. There is no profession which makes greater demands upon the altruism of its coteries. At the end of the stern and arduous apprenticeship there must be a period of further work before it can become in the least degree distinctive.

Then there is the struggle for recognition by the masters. This attained, there can still be no resting upon the oars or basking in the sun of established reputation. There is a constant call made for greater and greater effort and endurance through all the disappointments accompanying frustrated hopes and ambitions following upon series after series of

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abortive experiments and observations. Yet, if carried out with the full recognition of the function of the scientific worker in building up step by step upon a sure foundation of ascertained and indisputable fact a newer, brighter and fuller world, there can be no career more happy or more distinctive.



# Teaching

BY

FRANK ROSCOE, M.A.,

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TEACHING is an occupation which exhibits many diversities, according to the age of the pupils, their social position and their probable destiny in adult life. Further diversity comes in by reason of the existence of specialist or subject teachers. These confine themselves to giving instruction in one subject, music or drawing, for example. They are not of necessity limited in the range of their work to pupils of about the same age. Many of them work as private teachers, and include among their pupils both juveniles and adults.

It is not possible to indicate with precision the several detailed requirements which may be demanded as an equipment for an occupation such as teaching. The term covers the activities of the University professor and of the nursery governess, of the distinguished singer or painter who gives lessons to selected pupils, and of the humble teacher of the pianoforte in a suburb. It includes also the masters in our great Public Schools, the teachers in State schools, secondary and elementary, and the unknown numbers who work in private schools and preparatory schools. In spite of the diversified nature of teaching work, it is possible to lay down certain principles which may be accepted as postulates or conditions to be fulfilled by any who take up teaching as a means of livelihood.

In the first place the teacher ought to be himself an educated man. He should have the social and intellectual experience

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and discipline which will enable him to rank as a worthy member of a profession. Added to this he should have special knowledge of the subject or subjects which he proposes to teach. He should be able to produce evidence of this knowledge in the form of an examination success or a certificate showing that he has been a satisfactory student under approved conditions, such as will have furnished him with the necessary knowledge.

Further, he should undertake to learn something of the craft of teaching. It is not enough to know a subject. The teacher must also know how best to impart it to his pupils. It is true that certain qualities of person and character essential to success cannot be acquired by any form of training, but it is equally true that the possession of these essential qualities will be rendered still more effective by a study of the principles and methods of teaching.

University teachers and professors are drawn from the ranks of highly successful students. No special guidance is needed here, beyond saying that the aspirant to a University teaching post must scorn delights and live laborious days, for his function will be that of adding to knowledge by research no less than the imparting of advanced instruction to his pupils.

Posts in secondary schools are best prepared for by a school education extending to the age of eighteen, followed by a University course and a good degree. This should be followed by a year given to the study of the principles and methods of teaching. The year may be spent in the Education Department of a University, or in a Training College, or in a selected school. With this academic and professional outfit it will be useful to have some kind of athletic skill. Cricket, football and hockey are always useful, and in some Public Schools rowing is a passport to employment. Broadly speaking, the equipment above described is needed also for successful work and advancement in private schools and preparatory schools, although in the latter the boys pass on to the Public Schools at the age of thirteen, and the work of instructing them



calls for all-round rather than specialised knowledge, and, perhaps, a lively sympathy with boyish pursuits.

Service in public elementary schools has hitherto been unduly segregated from other forms of teaching work. This is due to the fact that the State requires that all children between the ages of five and fourteen shall be under efficient instruction. In effect this means that some six million children attend the public elementary schools free of charge. It also means that the administrative authorities, central and local, are compelled to devise methods to ensure that there shall be an unfailing supply of teachers in the elementary schools. Hence they have not ventured to rely upon the attractions of the work to bring recruits, but have felt themselves obliged to offer special inducements to young people in the form of free places in secondary schools and financial aid at the later stages of the professional preparation. This help is given on the understanding that the recipients will become teachers in State schools.

The course to be taken varies somewhat in different districts, but the parent who desires that his son shall be able to teach in a public elementary school should not fail to send him to a secondary school at about the age of eleven. The boy should aim at passing the First School Examination or Matriculation at the age of sixteen. This accomplished, he may apply to the Local Education Authority for a grant of money to enable him to remain at school until the age of eighteen, when he may enter either a University for a four-year course leading to a degree and a professional certificate, or a Training College for a two-year course leading to a professional certificate which qualifies him for service in elementary schools. During either of these courses he will receive aid in the form of a Government grant covering the cost of tuition and a part of the cost of his maintenance. A young man will be well advised to take the longer course and obtain a University degree if he can, thereby fitting himself for responsible work in either secondary or elementary schools. The extra two years and the additional

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outlay will prove to be a good investment, and there is a growing tendency to look for graduates as headmasters of elementary schools, especially in our large towns.

The cost of the various forms of preparation described will depend upon the school and University fees. Thus the Public School master who has graduated at Oxford and taken a course of training in teaching may have spent, say, £2,000 upon his boarding school and University, less any sums obtained by way of scholarships. The elementary school master may have attended a secondary school as a day pupil, receiving grants in the later stages. At an ordinary Training College his entrance fee would be about £50 to £75, and this would cover the cost of his tuition and maintenance for the two years, the balance being met by a Government grant.

The monetary rewards offered to the man who is engaged in teaching will vary according to his own qualifications and the post that he holds. The lowest salary paid to a qualified teacher in an elementary school is £168 a year, but in London and some other districts it is £192. Scale increments will raise the former to £312, the latter to £408 after twenty years. If the teacher is promoted to be headmaster, his salary may rise to £637 or less, according to the size of the school. In State secondary schools a graduate master will start with £240 a year, rising to £500, with an addition of £50 to each of these amounts if he is working in London. There are further additions for work of special responsibility, and a headmaster may obtain £1,000 or more as his annual salary.

These figures are subject to a deduction of 5 per cent. as a contribution towards superannuation, for it should be noted that teachers in State schools receive a pension based on the number of years of service, and amounting to about one-half the average salary during the last five years of service.

In schools and institutions which are not under State control the emoluments may be more or less than those in State schools. Public Schools, for example, such as Eton or Rugby, offer salaries higher than those mentioned, while private



schools usually cannot afford so much. There will probably be a tendency to treat the State scales as a standard for all branches of teaching work, including that of specialist teachers.

Remuneration apart, the work of the teacher has many attractions for the right type of man, the one to whom it is a vocation and not merely a bread-winning occupation. The ever-recurring contact with young minds helps us to retain freshness of spirit, and although teaching is not a road to wealth, it may be a field of happy and joyous effort.





# Art

## (a) PAINTING

BY

SIR JOHN LAVERY, R.A.

**I**T is sometimes said that the study of Art should be left to those students who do not have to consider the bread and butter problem.

I do not think this is quite sound. It is my opinion that there is not much chance for success in Art for the student who cannot face the problems of everyday life. If he can work all day and every day, and at the end of, say, a couple of years he can truthfully say that during that time he has never *for one moment* lost the keenest interest in his studies, and that they have always given him intense pleasure, I believe it would be safe to say that he had the makings of an artist.

The requirements for such a career are health, a love of nature, form and colour, a capacity for work. With these and common sense there is little fear of failure.

The art of painting and sculpture is unlike that of music, in that it reaches the brain through the eye and not through the ear, so that no sounds can truthfully convey to the painter what is seen by another.

It is, therefore, necessary to see all that is to be seen, especially the work of the masters, both ancient and modern. Municipalities should be encouraged to place before the citizens the best examples that can be got, and where originals are prohibitive, then the finest reproductions should be placed before the people.

## ART : PAINTING

This does not mean that only sculpture and painting should be seen ; on the contrary, applied art should have its place, and examples of furniture and textiles should be exhibited for the study of the student.

It would seem that, because Art is applied to the designing of something useful, the designer should occupy a lower position than he who paints a landscape or models a bust.

There is surely something wrong in the social system that permits this. The effect of it is to cause students who have a gift for design in applied art to take up the more popular study of the painter or sculptor, and fail.



## (b) DRAWING AND ILLUSTRATION

BY

GEORGE MORROW.

**I**N the first place dismiss the idea from your mind that the illustrator has an easy life and makes plenty of money. The illustrator who has an easy life makes very little money, and the one who makes plenty of money does not have an easy life.

If money only is your ambition get into business. The good points in the life of the illustrator are the pleasure of the craftsman in overcoming difficulties and the joy of creating something and expressing himself. There are other points not so good, but you will find them out for yourself, if, and, when you become an illustrator.

It is essential that you should have a genuine desire to draw, a certain amount of natural ability, and an imagination or power of visualising. Then you begin by laying a solid foundation, which means sheer, deliberate, painstaking study of form, light and shade, and perspective. This may be acquired at any school of art, and necessarily implies a certain amount of drudgery. There are no short cuts, though much time and labour may be saved by the guidance of a teacher who may save you from wasting your energy on non-essentials. The power of observation must be continuously cultivated, and material stored up to be used and played with later on when the handling of the medium becomes easy and natural. It would be useful if you studied examples of the best illustrations which appear in the Press and made occasional copies of them. A certain amount of imitativeness during your apprenticeship would do no harm, but see that you follow only the best examples.

## ART : DRAWING AND ILLUSTRATION

When you have mastered the rudiments of drawing, and your pencil or pen or brush has ceased to be an unwilling implement and become the ready servant of your will, you can pass on to the study of the living model. All this is but the raw material from which you will draw when you begin your original work.

Between the early drudgery and the production of original work there is an intermediate stage, when you will have to discipline yourself by a course of drawing from memory. But this, of course, you must do at intervals at all stages of your development. You should be constantly on the alert to seize on anything that you can turn to use. Accidental groupings of people or buildings, effects of light and shade, fleeting attitudes, movement, expression of emotions and so on. They are round you all the time, but you only *see* them at moments. You must increase the number of these moments and intensify your vision by practice.

You see, there is a lot to do.

If you are not discouraged by this picture and still persist in going on I will continue. The most difficult point is now reached. I will imagine that you are able to draw pretty accurately anything you see, and you have gathered and stored up within you a fair amount of material. What you want to do now is to use this knowledge to produce original work which will express something you have in mind, whether it is to illustrate a story someone else has written or to illustrate an idea of your own invention. Unless you have a particularly vivid mental vision you will find this task very troublesome and disheartening at first. I would advise you to tackle this problem even before you have reached a high point in drawing from nature. The two things should grow up together, the creative and the reproductive.

So far I have described the ordinary routine necessary for you if you mean to be an illustrator. From this point you may diverge in one of several directions. You will very likely have developed a tendency towards some particular quality in your



work. You may lean towards the delineation of dramatic subjects, or fashionable life, or animals, or slum life, or rustic scenes, or decorative treatments. Very few illustrators feel at home in all these. It might be wise, from mercenary motives, to take the line of least resistance and specialise, but I am not easy in my mind about this. Still, by specialising you may achieve a position more quickly, and after that you can do as you please. There is another direction you may take. If you are blessed, or otherwise, with the gift of humorous line and humorous fancy you could take up the melancholy burden of the comic artist. But if this gift is yours you would have found it out long ago, even before you could draw, and this brings me to the subject of caricature. If you are a born caricaturist (and I believe there is no other kind) I would advise you to refrain from learning to draw, that is, in the sense in which I have written about it in the foregoing paragraphs. Caricature is a thing apart, and is not helped by drawing in the academic sense. I do not mean that it does not require study and cultivation, but it is a study and a cultivation which I need not enlarge upon here. A real caricaturist is an inspired person who could get no help from me except an occasional cheer.

And now about that very vital question, the taking of your pigs (if you will pardon the homeliness of my expression) to market. I will tell you first what *not* to do. Do not take round *samples* of drawing, that is, drawings that could not be used by an editor unless he got an author to write things to fit them. Editors like their work made easy for them. But look carefully through the magazines and make a note of the treatment and medium favoured by each of them for your future guidance. Take drawings which could be published independently with just an explanatory title or verse or quotation. Or if you know someone who has written a story do some illustrations for it and send them in with the story. The drawings will show, practically, your powers of illustration, and there is a chance if the story is

## ART : DRAWING AND ILLUSTRATION

accepted that your drawing will go in under its cloak, or the story may squeeze through on the strength of your drawings and you have helped a struggling fellow-creature. But don't be surprised if you have to keep on trying for a while.

There is also the large and growing field of Publicity. Drawing advertisements is well paid and fuller of opportunities for original work than it ever has been. There are several studios in London devoted to work of this kind, and it is possible for a student after he has reached a moderate proficiency in drawing to get employment in one where he could acquire a knowledge of practical work while he was going on with his mastery of drawing in his spare time.

Have I said enough to dissuade you from entering on such a strenuous career ? Or do you still mean to get on with it ? But after all, to get into any profession means a lot of painful effort, though I will admit that this particular form of Art has many compensations, and money is not the chief one.



# Music

BY

SIR DAN GODFREY, F.R.C.M.,

*Director of Music to the Corporation of Bournemouth.*

I DO not recommend music as a career for the average youth owing to the precarious and over-crowded state of the musical profession in this country. Should, however, a youth be specially endowed with a natural love of music, a good ear, temperament, enthusiasm and personality, there is no reason whatever why he should not be ultimately successful in one of the many branches of the musical profession which are open to his choice. In the New World—more especially in the United States of America, where the remuneration is on a much higher scale than in England—there are probably more opportunities for efficient musicians than here in the Old Country. A word of warning, however: for every one that succeeds in America there are many that fail and have to return, as efficiency, personality and hard work are three important essentials for success. I cannot lay too much stress upon the qualification of personality as a vital factor of a musical career. Equally as performer or teacher must your musician possess the faculty of “standing out” and impressing himself equally upon an audience or his pupils. There are many well-equipped men and women who fail to come forward because they are lacking in personality. Temperament, vitality, soul, the ability to feel deeply, to sympathise with the composer, and get behind the notes of the score, these are also essentials of musicianship. Enthusiasm, the will to learn, to stick it even when the way

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seems hard and discouragement oppresses the student, is a further necessity to anyone who would follow the musician's life.

### COMPOSERS.

The creative side of music in its highest form is not a remunerative occupation. Symphonies and other "classical" works obtain tardy recognition, and require great perseverance in their composition. A composer must not rely upon it as a means of livelihood, but as an adjunct to his occupation as conductor or instrumentalist. British music is to-day honoured throughout the musical world; it received its chief impetus as a result of the Great War, before which we were inclined to believe that Germany had to be relied upon for the production of "great music." "Necessity is the mother of invention," hence the stimulus that brought Vaughan Williams, Holst, and others to the fore, to follow and progress on the traditions founded by Byrd, Gibbons, Purcell, Parry, Mackenzie, Stanford, Elgar, Bantock, and others.

### CONDUCTORS.

To become a conductor is the ambition of many instrumentalists; but the opportunity for controlling a concert orchestra is granted to few, mainly because the number of good orchestras is limited, owing to the considerable cost of giving orchestral concerts and the fact that the public expect so much for little. The formation of station orchestras in connection with broadcasting is, however, giving opportunities for several talented men. Music by cinema orchestras is improving, and here there is scope for imagination, as the success of the film picture is largely dependent on its musical accompaniment, and these positions are of considerable value to the holder.

To become a first-class choral conductor intimate knowledge of vocal technique is essential. It is unfortunately a fact that



very few combine the essential qualities of an orchestral and a choral conductor, so that often with an expert in choral training the orchestral accompaniment is below the level of the singing ; but in this respect there is growing improvement. I would advise any young man who aspires to be a conductor not to concentrate his attention, whilst playing in the orchestra, entirely on the part he is performing, but to store up the remarks and actions of his conductor (presuming he is an able man) ; in this way he will acquire much preliminary knowledge of the conductor's technique. Then the opportunity may come of being placed in charge of a small band, and so on to greater things. Some of our distinguished conductors gained their early experience with touring companies. Never forget, however, that without the goodwill and respect of the members of the orchestra your results will be disappointing. Although the orchestra may be described as a human machine, the units or parts are sensitive to a degree, and must at all times be humoured and never coerced.

#### INSTRUMENTALISTS.

Every instrumentalist would like to be a soloist, but the varying degrees of ability which exist in every phase of life must be the main factor in deciding the future. The obtaining of a scholarship at one of the important schools of music often helps to solve the problem of a boy's musical future. At the same time, whilst there are big prizes to be gained only a small minority can be successful. There is always a good living for the really competent orchestral player, in fact the supply does not equal the demand. The reason for the existence of so many incompetent players is the hurry they are in to earn a living and to shorten the period of essential study.

As to solo instrumentalists, I need only say that the path is often long and thorny, and for the few who gain the big prizes at the top there are many who fail to stay the

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course. This, however, can be said of almost any profession or trade apart from music. Generally speaking, the qualities that will get a man through in the musical world are undoubted ability, personality, tact, grit, and the knack of getting in with the right people and doing the right thing at the right time.

### THE SINGER'S ART.

The natural faculty for singing is so spontaneous and so human as compared with the purely mechanical dexterity of the instrumentalist that therein lies a danger. Singers are notoriously tempted to enter upon careers after a course of training which is insufficient to afford either technique or musicianship, qualities so often lacking in singers. The real singer needs a much richer equipment than natural endowment of voice, essential as this may be in and of itself. In spite of any special endowment in this way, there are singers who have not only created but maintained for themselves reputations which have placed them in the first rank rather by the exercise of personality and the artistry of their interpretations than by reason of their gift of voice. It is futile to inquire what becomes of the shoals of singing students who leave the great educational establishments each year but who apparently fail to make any impression on the public. The assumption is that, having been capably taught, the majority of these students swell the ranks of the teaching profession, which is already congested, and must surely prove to be unremunerative except to the fortunate few.

### THE TEACHING PROFESSION.

The future of music in this country depends entirely on the efficiency of present-day teaching, because the ultimate issue hangs upon the attitude as well as upon the taste of the rising generation. What is needed on the part of the whole teaching



profession is a conviction and a new awakening as to the supreme value of the art they profess.

The teachers should aim at directing their pupils' sense of appreciation so that three avenues of approach are opened up, and the appeal of music made direct to the senses, the emotions, and the intellect. It is never enough to say, "This is bad or that is good." Short lyrical pieces emphasising and illustrating qualities which constitute æsthetic beauty, such as rhythm, melody and harmony, will appeal much more readily to the pupil. They will also serve to forge that link which exists between art and life, and connect present achievements with future possibilities.

#### SERVICE BANDS.

There is another branch of the musical profession which offers material possibilities, a bandmastership in the Army or Air Force.

Boys in civilian life cannot now enlist before the age of 15. They must have the consent of parent or guardian, a certificate of character from a clergyman, and an educational certificate of graduation from the fifth standard. No musical knowledge is required, but the age of 15 is late to start tuition as a musician, and therefore preliminary training at the piano, violin, or other instrument is advisable. At the age of 18 the boy becomes technically a "man." At or prior to this period, if he should become a good performer on his instrument, he may be sent to Kneller Hall to be turned into an expert performer.

Having entered Kneller Hall, he is considered as on probation for the first six months, and if he proves in any respect unsuitable is returned to his unit.

The first period of his course is for the most part devoted to preparation for the examination in the theoretical subjects which is held two years after the date of his entry: a very severe examination, a second failure in which puts an end to the candidate's prospects.

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Having successfully negotiated this, the student then turns his attention to conducting, the training and rehearsing of a military band, orchestral concert work, the training of a male voice choir, church services, advanced arranging for military band and orchestra, and composition. The course gives a very thorough and excellent ground for an ambitious bandmaster who intends trying subsequently for a musical degree. There are at present twelve Directors of Music in the Army, three with the Marines, and one with the Air Force. They are all commissioned officers, commencing with the rank of Lieutenant, with promotion after seven years' service to Captain, and after a further ten years (if the age limit permits) to Major; retirement with the rank of Lieut.-Colonel is possible. There is naturally keen competition for the appointments of Director of Music, which is made by selection, tempered by seniority.



# Architecture

BY

C. LOVETT GILL, F.R.I.B.A.

**O**F the essential qualifications for those contemplating the profession of Architecture ability to draw is not the least, for graphic expression is the only medium by which an Architect can develop his ideas.

Draughtsmanship is important, but it must not be thought that this is the only talent an Architect should possess. There is the love and study of old buildings, which in itself is useful for gaining knowledge of past methods of design and construction, therefore the ability to sketch is, perhaps, one of the best methods of training the eye and memory ; a thing once sketched or drawn out is never really forgotten. Travel affords an architectural interest, and he is able to base his opinions on historical examples as well as on the character of the masters who erected them. The architectural profession, however, calls for something more robust than either draughtsmanship or antiquarian interest ; it connotes a study of materials and the necessary desire to inquire into their application and use. There must be a strong inventive faculty combined with the ability to apply the knowledge so gained to modern construction. The Architect must be able to grasp the possibilities of locality and the best use to be made of a particular site, as well as to envision the finished effect of a new building. It is also essential to be able to decide on the best method, in design and construction, to apply to the alterations or conversion of an existing building. It cannot be too strongly emphasised that no amount of training can

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initiate these qualities in a student, but training on systematic lines will develop them.

A good general education is essential, it has the same value in all the professions, but Architecture especially calls for a knowledge of humanity and the study of the past in this and other countries. Every opportunity should be taken by an intending Architect to travel and broaden his knowledge of the design and methods of building in other countries.

The Architect in general practice has the advantage of spending a considerable portion of his time in superintending the works being carried out from his drawings, it is not entirely an indoor profession. He is well equipped who has a knowledge of the other arts, Sculpture, Painting, and Literature. In addition, there is the scientific and legal aspect of the subject, such as the Building Laws, Sanitary Science, and the clauses relating to Easements and Contracts.

There are two principal methods open to those who decide to take up Architecture. The method in vogue until within the last decade was to place a boy in an office and to enter into indentures with an Architect for a period of from three to five years. The other method which is now universal is for the boy or girl to enter one of the Architectural Schools recognised by the Royal Institute of British Architects.

There are two classes of schools. "A," those which have received full recognition of the Royal Institute of British Architects. "B," those which have received partial recognition. In schools of the "A" class the courses are arranged in two parts. The first, of three years, carries exemption from the Intermediate Examination of the Royal Institute of British Architects, a certificate being granted on the advice of the external examiners of that body. The second part of the courses continues for another two years, part of which is spent at the school and part in the office of a selected Architect. Under this system pupilage takes place at the end of the school training, and on the completion of the five years' course the candidate enters for the Final Examination, which is held



conjointly by the school authorities and an external examiner appointed by the Royal Institute of British Architects. Schools recognised under the second section have partial exemption, which holds good for students with a certificate of three years' status.

London has two schools, University College in Gower Street and the Schools of the Architectural Association in Bedford Square. Full details of the system and the courses under which these schools are run can be obtained on application.

There are "recognised" schools at Liverpool, Glasgow, Manchester, Cambridge University, Sheffield, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Cardiff, Leeds, Newcastle, Birmingham, Bristol. Particulars of the above can be obtained from the Secretary of the Royal Institute of British Architects, 9 Conduit Street, Regent Street, London, W.

As previously mentioned, the usual course is for three years, and those students who take a five years' course at the two London schools spend some portion of the last two years in an Architect's office or study buildings in some practical way outside the school, as, for example, in a contractor's yard. The Royal Academy School, Burlington House, Piccadilly, London, W., is an independent school intended for students of ability and some experience. Such applicants who pass the entrance examination have no fees to pay. At the Academy, which is the oldest of the schools, several valuable prizes are given each year. The students have the advantage of their work being criticised by some of the Architect members of the Royal Academy.

### POLYTECHNICS AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

These are subordinate to the recognised schools, and serve a useful purpose for those who attend evening classes ; they mainly specialise in drawing and construction.

There are certain maintenance scholarships and exhibitions

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offered to those desirous of securing architectural training, and a list of these, with particulars of the prizes offered in the profession and other data useful to the student, is set out in detail in *The Architectural Student's Handbook*, by Mr. F. R. Yerbury, published by the Technical Journals, 27 Tothill Street, Westminster, S.W. 1.

Most public bodies have a staff of architectural draughtsmen. The Railway Companies, Municipal Authorities, and nearly all big companies have openings for men of talent. There are such bodies as the Office of Works and the London County Council, employing a large number of trained assistants. The various Government Departments, such as the War Office, the Admiralty, and the Air Ministry, have Works Departments requiring architectural experts.

As regards employment abroad, all such appointments are usually advertised in the Press, giving the salary and the age limit of applicants, usually a doctor's certificate is required, and the applicant has to pass a medical board.

These appointments should be carefully studied before acceptance, and the Secretary of the Royal Institute of British Architects is the best authority to advise on these matters.

The established Architect in full practice finds little time to do more than prepare the preliminary sketches for his buildings, the full drawings of which are worked out in the office. A considerable portion of his time is taken up interviewing people, visiting works, and preparing reports and documents relating to contracts and easements and the affairs to be settled with adjoining owners. To carry out this successfully requires an experience that can only be obtained by years of practice.

The remuneration of an Architect as a member of the Royal Institute of British Architects is 6 per cent. on the estimated value of the work, if over £2,000; under this amount a higher percentage is allowed. It is, however, open for Architects to charge an increased fee for certain work. Details are given in the Royal Institute of British Architects' Calendar issued to



all members, and this publication deals with various conditions that may affect professional fees ; it also gives suggestions as to the professional conduct of members.

The enormous increase in our population and the more recent necessity of making adequate provision for road traffic are the chief factors in compelling the responsible authorities to realise that the haphazard extension of our cities and towns cannot continue.

Architects have, therefore, had to devote themselves to the new problems that have arisen in the demand for garden cities, and the success of such undertakings has been largely influenced by what can be described as landscape gardening and the preservation of the natural beauties of the site, as well as designing the houses in a style suitable to the locality ; the results have been an immense improvement in housing conditions, which must have its reflex in the improved health of the nation.





# The Stage

BY

J. M. GLOVER,

*Director of Music, Drury Lane Theatre, 1893-1920.*

**I**N discussing the Stage as a career one must attack the subject firmly and without fear.

## I

In the first place, let no man decide to be an actor unless acting, *per se*, appeals to him more than all else in the world. Acting is an art, and it demands a man's whole life; for it he must be prepared to give up all ideas of wealth, of domestic comforts, of all that other men regard as making life worth while. If a man whose heart is set upon music, or the sea, or acting itself, is forced by circumstances to adopt a business career, there is every chance that in time he will learn to fill his niche adequately, and even possibly with some distinction. But if the man who is born to be a business magnate, or a sailor, or an architect, or a doctor goes instead upon the stage—he will fail. And in his failure he will either throw up his career and turn, belatedly, to something else, or he will continue his days of failure, and suffer accordingly.

## II

If, in spite of this warning, he determines that the Stage shall be his career—well, one is tempted to say, "God help him!" He is probably saying to himself: "I will be a successful actor. For umpteen years I will earn £200 a week.

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I will become famous. I will make a fortune. And eventually, with a well-earned knighthood, I will retire as a man who has succeeded in life."

And unless he is born under a star nearly as rare as the blue moon he will not be a successful actor, he will not earn £200 a week, he will not make a fortune, he will not earn a knighthood, and his only form of retirement will be in the long, long weeks and months when he describes himself as "resting."

Still—he may prove to be one of the lucky ones, winning for himself a place in the firmament and eventually becoming a star, or even a planet. But even then his position will be precarious. Temporary ruination may result for an actor from a sore throat, an attack of measles, or even from something still less within his own control, such as a death in the Royal Family. If a man in any other profession or business gets ill there is someone to "hold the fort" for him until he returns; but the prolonged absence of the star from a show means the end of that production, and very likely a period of unemployment for the actor at the end of his convalescence. For an actor trades on his personality and his personal attractiveness: to give place to a poor understudy will kill the show, while to make room for a good understudy is, at the best, to lower one's value by the introduction of a competent rival.

### III

But, for the purposes of this article, we must assume that the tyro is prepared for the worst that can befall him. He is not seeking wealth, or the comfort of sitting by a fireside with his wife, or the enjoyments of society. He sees himself as an artist, and for the sake of his art he would devote his life to the Stage. Very well then.

Unfortunately for him, there is no royal road of entry into the career. Eton and Oxford, Harrow and Cambridge are not



much of a help to the stage aspirant. One thing above all else is wanted at the start, and that is experience. If our tyro is, or can be, a member of a good dramatic club, such as are attached to the Universities, by all means let him learn there all he can of his craft; yet it is remarkable how few of the members of these clubs do actually blossom out into the real thing, the professional actor. For there is a long, long gap between the dramatic club and the professional "boards," and it is not easy to bridge it. Influence, of course, is a help. If our young man has a friend whose wife knows the wife of a cousin of somebody who knows an actor-manager—well, it is up to him to shorten the circuit.

## IV

Then as to qualifications. Brains and intelligence are needed, and presumably some faint spark of this particular branch of what is called "genius." But two other things are also important: good looks and a tall presence. If an actor misses these two of the qualifications, he is restricted at once to a species of acting which is called "character," and the rest of the world of drama is barred to him for life. Success will then mean a reputation for character acting—for small man "funny" parts, for diminutive misers, solicitors and other "type" impersonations—and his average income is unlikely to exceed about £400 a year. Once an actor makes a success in such a speciality he is virtually ruined, for no one will ever engage him for anything else. His very success will prejudice authors against him, because like sheep they will all say: "Jones, the actor, is very good in Pinero's play, but that is not what I want, for if I put him in mine the critics will say that I have copied one of Pinero's types." So Jones is condemned to repeat the one performance at which he made his original success. Having waited six months to get an engagement, he may make a success and play the character for three, four, or five hundred nights—only to become a human

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automaton, useful for only a single purpose. He then has a siesta of six or twelve months' idleness, being continually passed over, until at last he is drafted into another play where his size and personality fit in with the frame. So that in three years, working at an income of £20 a week—£1,000 a year—he finds that he really has had only what is described as a *Village Blacksmith* engagement—week in, week out—resulting in his earning an average of £6 a week—£300 a year. So much for Jones.

If, however, our actor is a tall, handsome man with a debonair, Romeo personality, he will at any rate have a wider field. He will have at the start to decide whether he wants to be first in ————— or second in Rome: whether his ambition is to play the lead at *Ticklem-on-the-Mud* or to announce that "Dinner is served" in the West End of London. If he chooses *Ticklem-on-the-Mud* he gives up for ever his chance of becoming a West End star, and to play "Bassanio" at the Hull Repertory Theatre will be about the summit of his ambition; if he decides to stay in London he will usually be found on the pavement in the neighbourhood of Shaftesbury Avenue, but he will constantly feel that one day—one day—his name will be in the biggest letters on the play-bill.

## V

I have tried, in these words of advice, to disperse some, at least, of "the glare of the footlights." It is a tinsel glare. I have said more than once in these pages that the life of the actor is incompatible with ordinary domestic life and comfort. That is a point which the aspirant must not forget. The only time when the average actor is not separated from his wife is when he is out of a job. Meanwhile, he has to make love every night to a *papier mâché* wife in a play, and all the while he is living in third-rate lodgings that are a sordid combination of dirt, bad cooking, and general discomfort. Even when in time he comes to be a three-figure man and live



in an hotel, he cannot afford a sitting-room, and he spends his spare time loafing from house to house, or from bar to bar. And all the time there is the lonely wife at home, children always saying: "Where's daddy, mummy?" Well, it isn't a pretty picture, is it? Yet it is a true one, and since domestic surroundings are among the bigger influences in a man's life, one must consider them in choosing a career.

## VI

Well, there it is. It may be that the Stage will become a less overcrowded profession through the writing of this article. At any rate, I hope that it will keep off some of those unfortunates who enter it without knowing what lies before them. But if, in spite of it, our young aspirant says: "I don't care. The Stage is the life for me: it is what I was born for, and it is what I shall give my life to"—well, here's luck to him. He'll need it!





# Literature

BY

THOMAS BURKE,

*Author of " Limehouse Nights," " The London Spy," " The Wind and the Rain."*

I HAVE some hesitation in writing a chapter on the literary life for a book dealing with careers. The young man, surveying the various fields of work, may choose Engineering, Law, Medicine, the Sea, Banking, Politics, for his career ; but the young man who looks towards literature (or any of the creative arts) as a means of livelihood had better think again, for his soul's good as well as his body's. He may legitimately consider other professions, not only for what they offer in opportunities for the exercise of his abilities, but for what they offer in pecuniary reward and self-advancement. With the creative arts these considerations are both ignoble and vain.

We who work in literature or painting or music or the theatre have not chosen our work, neither have we thought of possible reward ; the work has chosen us, and to some of us it has dealt rewards and to others disappointments. My own choice was music, and I still sometimes look towards it. But music would not have me. I *wanted* to be a musician ; I *had* to write. No matter how I set myself towards music, always I was turned towards literature. I could, though clumsily, express myself in words ; in music I could express nothing ; and as the only abiding satisfaction I have ever found in life was to attempt some expression of the secret beauty that lies

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behind perceived beauty, I employed the means that came most easily to me. I became a writer.

But if you ask me how I did it I cannot tell you.

There are a number of handbooks and a number of self-styled colleges that profess to show you *How To Become an Author*. In fact, there is no *How To* about it. You cannot be trained in literature as young men are trained in engineering and chemistry. You become a writer because you have to; that is all. Colleges and guides can do no more for the young man who wants to write than to turn him into a magazine and syndicate - press hack. They are a reflection of the industrialism of the age. They show you how to "earn a living by the pen"; how to supply "editorial requirements"; how, in short, to become a merchant and manufacturer supplying a flash commodity and working to instructions. The people who do work of this sort make large incomes, and they would make equally large incomes in grocery, hardware, or any other form of dealing. We need not sneer at them for this, but they have nothing to do with the literary life; and they themselves cynically admit it.

No young man should enter the literary life unless literature has for him a call so strong that he will rather write than eat, and will be ready to make any sacrifice to his work. He need not regard literature as a high and holy office. It is the inferior artist who takes that view of it, and mostly he makes a holy mess of it. It is less than that and far more than a branch of the entertainment industry. The great English masters—Defoe, Fielding, Swift, Scott, Thackeray, Dickens—wrote because they wanted to write, and were so busy making literature that they had no time to think solemnly about it. It was with them a serious pursuit to which they gave all of themselves seriously—using the word in the French sense.

And so the young man must regard it. He must work with no other aim than that of doing the best of which he is capable. He must be ready to suffer years of struggle and, after that, years of public indifference; and still to go on,



and remember that each new piece of work means beginning all over again. He may do good work, and in the world's eyes be a failure. He may do inferior work, and, if it is the fashionable sort of inferiority, he will achieve material success and popularity. Or he may fail in every way. I would prefer to see him do the good work, and have to wait for recognition; but whatever the quality of his work, it must be *his* best; and he need feel no false shame if his best is not so good as the worst of his idol's.

There is no other way of learning to write than by continuous labour and by living with all sorts of men. Life is the material of the author's craft, and only by experience of it can he come to the knowledge and understanding from which he can offer us *his* illumination of some corner of its pilgrimage and battle. We may in dreams behold the Hebrides and draw inspiration from them, but our work will have no value unless we have first looked upon the soul of man and read its story. That is why my advice to a young man is: Practise your craft continually, and read the best masters; but give most of your time to study of the creatures about you, so that you may express, in your own way, what you see and what you feel, and not what you think you ought to see and feel. There is no standard of technique: every artist creates his own technique. When you have felt something deeply, and wish to express it, it will find its own form and style.

The more original your work is the longer will be your struggle for recognition. Observing current literature, you will note that there are two types of "successful" author—the inferior and the superior; or the commonplace and imitative and the original. You will note that Mr. Galsworthy and Mr. Masfield have as many readers as Miss Dell and Mr. Frankau; and you may draw your own conclusions. Miss Dell and Mr. Frankau found their public with their first books. Mr. Masfield and Mr. Galsworthy had to wait. These writers are doing the best work of which they are capable, but one quality is light and thin, the other rich and fast. One quality

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has an immediate appeal to the current common taste ; the other appeals only to the more polite taste and requires time for its journey to the larger public. They are, in relation to each other, as contributors to the fiction syndicates are to contributors to *The Criterion*, *The London Mercury*, and similar reviews. All writers of fiction are called novelists, and all contributors to the periodical press are called journalists ; but oh, my young man, between the two is a chasm as wide as the chasm between the winner of the St. Leger and the creature that draws the baker's cart. Having perceived this, you may dismiss the matter, and set yourself to do the best that is in you with all the power you possess, and to follow your personal ideals of your art, which will be as high as your own soul—no higher. Those ideals will set you where you belong—on the right or the left of the chasm.

Unless you have come down from Oxford or Cambridge with a well-to-do father behind you, or have a private income, you will, while bent upon doing good work, be compelled, in self-preservation, to look to the periodical press for your bread and lodging. This does not mean that you need lower your standards or write anything of which you are ashamed. The periodical press of to-day represents all grades of intelligence, and among the hundreds of daily and weekly journals you may choose those that allow free expression and welcome sound work. You will not get substantial cheques from these journals, but you should be able to earn sufficient to keep yourself in simple decency, and give the bulk of your time to the work that insistently calls you. Every artist without private means has to make some compromise, and most of them have learned to divide their minds into two sections, and in order to secure leisure for the work that they want to do to devote one section to miscellaneous work. I know a distinguished novelist who earns his bread by writing advertisement "copy," and when by this means he has earned enough to keep him for a year, he retires from it and settles to a new book. Another friend, a musician of great accomplishment, conducts a cinema



orchestra ; but he is still a musician, and that section of his mind devoted to his serious work admits no question of compromise.

Looking forward a little, and assuming that you have done good work and have found a publisher for it, here enters the question of its pecuniary value, and you will be a fool if you treat this lightly. If the mood in which you wrote your work was genuine, you would have had no thought of this side of it while writing ; but once it is done you are fully entitled to consider it as a property, and to enjoy all the benefits arising from it. Indifference to this matter is often mere humbug ; but if you are so diffident as to shrink from discussion of business details, there is the literary agent, whose job it is to relieve you of these details, to get the best possible terms for you, and to realise all the potential benefits attaching to a successful work of fiction—as serial rights, English book rights, American book rights, translation rights, second-serial rights, dramatic rights, cinematograph rights, etc., benefits from which you will be debarred if you sell your copyright.

The literary agent is often abused by a few disappointed authors and a few disgruntled publishers ; but as I spent six years in the business of literary agency, and as I have to-day an agent who is both a friend and a perfect manager of my affairs, I cannot listen to this abuse. Many people hold that the literary agent is useless to the beginner. My experience does not confirm this. Many of the most worthy "first" novels have reached publication through the medium of the literary agent. Any work which has "anything in it" is certain, sooner or later, to find a publisher ; and since the publisher's interest is not to pay heavy sums to buy the work of authors already established, but to be always making his own discoveries, the literary agent of serious standing is of great help to him in making these discoveries.

The publisher and the agent are as interested in the new writer as they are in their established writers, and genuine talent does not get overlooked ; though, as I say, it may

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have to wait some time before it catches the appreciative eye. There are publishers and publishers, and the most common mistake of the young writer is that of offering his work in the wrong quarters. Most publishers have a "note" expressing their individual taste, and the intelligent agent knows those distinctive "notes." If the agent says, "I think I can place this," he does, with few exceptions, make a sale. If he says, "I don't think I could sell this," his opinion means something and is worth attention. (I am speaking of serious agents; there are many who are not regarded seriously.) The good agent is a blend of business man and literary critic, and many a young writer has received valuable help from his agent in solving difficult problems of technique.

In our agency we handled the work of the "popular" successful and the "serious" successful, as well as work in each class by unknown writers. As the author must contribute to the periodical press to earn his bread, so the agent and the publisher who wish to handle good work must handle a few "best sellers" to cover their loss on the good work. That was our policy. We handled books by unknown authors because (a) we saw an immediate acceptance and a prospect of good sales for a book we would never have thought of reading in our own homes, or because (b) the book was good and it gave us pleasure and pride to find a publisher for it. Our 10 per cent. on the "best seller" compensated for our few shillings commission on the good book.

The young author will not, if he knows anything about the book business, expect to reap much financial advantage from the publication of his first book; but, if it attracts serious attention, the advantage will reach him from other directions. It will have this result: editors of magazines who have been refusing his work will now offer him appreciable cheques, and ask him to write for them work of precisely the kind that they have been refusing. They are like that. Always they wait until some other man has taken the risk of getting the author's work talked about. The publisher says, "I want good books."



The editor says, "I want names." It is the same in music. The young composer offers a song to a music firm. The firm asks, "Who is going to sing it?" The composer says, "I don't know." "Well, get somebody with a name to sing it, and we'll be glad to have it." He goes to a singer with a big name. The singer asks, "Who publishes this?" "It's not published yet." "Well, get it published, and then perhaps I'll sing it."

But even when your first and second books are published you must cherish no hopes of wide appreciation. It may be that your work will not rise to the distinction of literary appreciation or even popular appreciation. It may be still-born. But you must go on, and if you are happy in the work you are doing it will never occur to you to consider the material question—Is it worth while? If your place in life is in the literary world, however humble a corner you hold, you will be happy in no other place. You may be poor, and it will not matter. You may have hours of depression and consciousness of failure. You may in time realise that your work has never reached your own standards. You must go on. You may find your work neglected, sneered at, or dismissed in three sharp lines. You must go on, setting down sincerely the vision that you have of humanity and life. They may laugh at your vision. They may say it isn't a vision at all. Perhaps they're right. But through all the self-distrust and the agonising knowledge that you will never, in your best moments, be able to do what A. and B. and C. do so masterfully, you must remember the parable of the man with one talent, and with a single heart go on. The test of the genuineness of your talent is your ability to go on.





# Journalism

BY

SIR ROBERT LYNN, M.P.,

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"I WANT to become a journalist." This phrase must be familiar to most newspaper editors. And those who look back on their own early struggles are ever ready to lend a helping hand to the promising youth who is ready to scorn delights and live laborious days or nights as the case may be. It is safe to say that the percentage of those who visit the editorial sanctum full of enthusiasm for Journalism and who ever evolve as journalists is small. Most of them have not the faintest idea of the qualifications necessary, and in the majority of cases they want to start at the top. On the strength of the fact that he has contributed an article to his school magazine or has strung together two dozen lines of doggerel you will find a boy who is ready to make his first flight from the leader writer's room. And what a sorry failure the effort generally is! Journalists may, like poets, be born, but they want a terrible lot of making before they reach the perfect stature of journalistic manhood.

It is to those who have no objection to going through a rough mill that I want to address myself. For the true journalist there is no other profession which offers the same attractions, but unless one really loves his work it is a rough and laborious road that has to be traversed. It is important that the youth who is looking to Journalism as a profession should be under no illusions. The whole time is not spent in

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launching thunderbolts intended to kill politicians and other wicked people. The work should never be dull, but it is uncommonly hard at times. Journalism is an exacting mistress, and those who would please her must always be ready to sacrifice themselves. You may wish to spend the evening with a friend or with your family; but the newspaper must come out in the morning, and if you are a cog in the great wheel you must think of your newspaper first, last and all the time. I put the drawbacks in the forefront because he who is not prepared to overcome them should never think of entering the realm of Journalism.

What prospects does Journalism offer to the ambitious youth who has got the particular gifts necessary for the production of a newspaper? I have no hesitation in saying that as compared with the other learned professions it offers many attractions. It is true that only for the favoured few does it offer the monetary advantages of a business career. But money is not the only thing in life that counts, and many a man who could not get an overdraft at the bank is richer in the things that satisfy than the millionaire. Journalists are now able to command decent salaries, and certainly at the top there is not a jostling crowd. The youth who is anxious to amass a huge fortune should, however, look elsewhere than to Journalism.

Assuming that a youth is prepared to share in the pleasant hardships of work that is never ending, and that he does not desire to hoard up gold or Bradburys, the question arises as to the training necessary before he can get a firm footing on the journalistic ladder. The mistake is too often made of assuming that the only requisite in a newspaper office is a knowledge of shorthand. One might know more about shorthand than even Pitman himself, and yet not be the slightest use in producing a newspaper. Shorthand is a useful adjunct, but standing alone it will be of very little service. Some of the best journalists I have ever met never could understand shorthand. And yet for some kinds of journalistic work it is



indispensable. The majority of journalists who have started at the bottom and worked their way through the different departments employed shorthand, and my advice to the youth who wants to get the widest possible experiences in Journalism is to learn shorthand. It is useful in going through life to be able to record the spoken word with ease.

There are two ways in which a youth can enter the journalistic profession, but if he is to be a success he must have a sound education. Some editors refuse to take men on their literary staff unless they can display the hall-mark of a university degree. There are different opinions as to which makes the best journalist—the university-trained man or the man who has got all his training in a newspaper office. Lord Northcliffe had a theory that the best way to educate a youth was to put him through a newspaper office for a few years and then send him to a university. As a theory it was excellent, but it is not every boy who could afford to pay for the experiment. It is useless for a youth who has not a good all-round education to hope for success in Journalism.

A careful perusal of a newspaper for, say, a week will reveal the wide range of subjects with which a modern newspaper is called upon to deal. The journalist is unable to hide his ignorance, for if he tries to deal with subjects he does not understand he will soon be found out, if not by the general public then by the experts. What a terror the expert is to the young and inexperienced journalist! It is impossible to prescribe a curriculum for the aspiring journalist. His reading should be as wide as possible. Foreign languages are valuable, and they should not be neglected; but the English language, so rich in the best that literature has produced, calls for the closest study. There is not a single department of the English language that does not call for the attention of the youth who wishes to become a successful journalist! His earliest task in all probability will be the law courts, and if he knows something of the framework, history and evolution of our legal system he will find his work much more interesting. Indeed, the whole

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social structure presents a never-failing source of interest to the thoughtful student. Politics loom large in the life of the average journalist, and a close knowledge of the history of our own politics is essential to any journalist who wishes to climb the ladder. I do not suggest that the young journalist should pore over the pages of Hansard for years, but he should at least have a nodding acquaintance with all the outstanding figures in the life of the nation since we emerged from the tribal stage. Who can lay any claim to be an educated man who is unfamiliar with the history of the Imperial Parliament? A young journalist need not know the technical details that govern debates in the Mother of Parliaments, but he should have a correct view of the great stream which has run through national life for well-nigh a thousand years.

It is said that we are an insular people, but in these days, when the world has become so small, there is little hope for promotion in Journalism if there is not a general knowledge of the history and the conditions of life in all other civilised countries. Every country in the world contributes its quota to the material which goes to make up a daily newspaper. To put it in a nutshell, no one should aim at being a journalist unless his mind is well stored with general knowledge and he has the aptitude for assimilating knowledge every day of his life. I believe that a newspaper office is the finest university in the world for the individual who has acquired the habits of the diligent student.

I said there were two ways by which a youth could enter the profession. If he is particularly gifted he may start his apprenticeship in a daily newspaper office. His first term is not specially exhilarating to the spirited youth who begins with the idea that he was born to set the world right. It may be that he does nothing more exciting than open telegrams and letters. The idea of "fagging" may be irksome at the time, but in after years one realises the advantage of seeing everything from the beginning. Little by little the youth emerges, and it largely depends on himself what class of work he has to do.



The second entrance is through the office of the country weekly. I have a great regard for the country weeklies, which have for so long supplied a useful feature in the national life. They are produced in a more leisurely fashion than the big dailies. They have not the same army of experts at their command, and they offer wonderful opportunities for the well-educated youth. There is scarcely a phase in parochial life with which he is not brought into contact. He sees life free from much of the tinsel that is observable in our large cities. I always feel that the boy who starts in a country newspaper office has an advantage over his city cousin. He has certainly opportunities for displaying any talent he has, since he may have to take a hand in describing anything from poultry rearing to the beauties of Greek poetry. Only those who have had the experience can realise the diversified character of the work which falls to the lot of a country journalist. It is not all a picnic. But generally when it is hard it is exciting. The journalist who has a wide knowledge of a province makes the best man when the time comes for tackling work on the large morning or evening newspaper. He knows the prominent men and the particular weight they carry, and he saves his newspaper from making those howlers which are inseparable from lack of local knowledge. The local friendships he makes are invaluable. One of the reasons why Delane of *The Times* was such a great success was his facilities for having friends everywhere. Friends scattered over the country are a great source of strength and information, and my advice to young journalists is to make friends everywhere.

Whether a youth enters the profession through the city or through the country, there is only one sure way to success, and that is by hard work. Brilliant spurts will not succeed in carrying anyone to the front line. Brilliance is commendable, but what is wanted is steady brilliance. You cannot offer your reader any excuse for being dull. If you did he would not accept it. A high level is expected all the year round, and unless you can keep up to it you must be written down as a failure.

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There is no profession where one has to depend so much on merit. You may be able to prove that you are a Plantagenet or the descendant of some mythical Irish king, but it will avail you nothing if you have not the root of the matter in you. Cook's son and duke's son meet on a perfect equality in the democratic domain of Journalism, and it is the one who possesses the true journalistic qualities who must rule.

No matter how insignificant the task which is allotted to the journalist, he should discharge it as faithfully as if it were something big and out of the ordinary. He should cultivate the habit of doing everything thoroughly. It may only be a three-line paragraph, but it should be written with as much care as if it were a leading article which might overthrow a Government. "Thorough" should be the motto of every young journalist. Next to thoroughness I would put accuracy. The injunction of the apostle to prove all things should be laid to heart. A little care would obviate most of the inaccuracies that find their way into print. The accurate journalist who never lets his editor down is a treasure, and he is highly valued. Closely associated with accuracy is the gift of getting news. Some men have a particular faculty for getting exclusive information. Here again the most painstaking care must be taken, but three-fourths of the secret is to be found in the capacity for taking pains. Never betray a confidence. Every journalist from the youngest to the oldest is made the recipient of confidences, and it should always be a point of honour to keep them, even when doing so means a personal loss. It is important, however, to be wary of the public man who offers to tell something in confidence which you would find without his help. It often happens that a journalist is prevented from publishing a particular piece of news because he has already been told it in confidence, and not a few clever politicians adopt this method with the object of silencing a journalist.

The first few years of mapping out the future lies largely in the hands of the journalist himself. No amount of outside influence can help him if he is not fitted for his position. In



the preliminary training he is usually called upon to do all classes of ordinary work. This is all to the good, and fits him for the greater responsibilities that lie ahead. Very often the difficulty is to find young men who will accept responsibilities. For those who are willing and capable the opportunity soon comes. Young journalists, and indeed their seniors, should never forget that their services are to the public in an especial degree. The journalist is the public watchdog. His business is to observe public affairs with a watchful but a single eye. In his work he must exercise the scrupulous fairness of a judge and under no circumstances must he allow personal feelings to warp his judgment. The journalist who is of any account must make friends and enemies, but he must be careful not to attach undue importance to praise and certainly not to be turned aside from doing his duty by even the most virulent abuse. Above all things, he should never meet vulgar personalities with vulgar personalities. Personalities indicate the small mind, and they never enhance those who indulge in them with the thinking public. After all facts, and facts only, count. A man may differ from one in politics or religion and still be an honest, intelligent man. It is wrong to suppose that every opponent is a knave or a fool. Allowance should always be made for the other man's point of view. The journalist who neglects to do this is sure to prove a failure. There is not much sympathy nowadays for the frame of mind of the old Scottish woman who declared: "There are only two Christians in the parish—the meenister and mysel', and I hae ma doots about the meenister."

Honesty must be the dominant feature in the character of the journalist who wishes to gain the confidence of his readers. Honesty is more important than cleverness, because it is lasting. If personal fads or personal prejudices are ever allowed to bulk largely in a newspaper they must in time bring about its downfall. History is full of recorded failures of newspapers established to give vent to the opinions of some faddist. The public look to a newspaper to place all the affairs of life before it without undue favouritism, and the newspaper that neglects

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this primary duty is bound to wither and decay. A journalist should be not only honest but also independent. It is not always easy. Sometimes in the exercise of independence one hurts the feelings of a friend who does not want to hear the truth, but even the loss of friends should never be allowed to stand between oneself and duty. Neither smiles nor frowns should be allowed to deflect the journalist's judgment. It is only by pursuing an honest, fearless, independent policy that a journalist can maintain the highest traditions of his profession and at the same time render the greatest service to the public.

The true relations of journalists to any Government were never more ably set forth than by Delane in *The Times* over seventy years ago, when he wrote during a dispute with the Prime Minister of the day :—

" The purposes and duties of the two Powers are constantly separate, generally independent, sometimes diametrically opposite. The dignity and freedom of the Press are trammelled from the moment it accepts an ancillary position. To perform its duties with entire independence, and consequently with the utmost public advantage, the Press can enter into no close or binding alliance with the statesmen of the day, nor can it surrender its permanent interests to the convenience of the ephemeral power of any Government. The first duty of the Press is to obtain the earliest and most correct intelligence of the events of the time, and instantly by disclosing them to make them the common property of the nation. The Press lives by disclosures. Whatever passes into its keeping becomes a part of the knowledge and history of our times. It is daily and for ever appealing to the enlightened force of public opinion—anticipating if possible the march of events—standing upon the breach between the present and the future, and extending its survey to the horizon of the world. The duty of the Press is to speak ; of the statesman to be silent. We are bound to tell the truth as we find it, without fear of consequences—to lend no convenient shelter to acts of injustice or oppression,



but to consign them at once to the judgment of the world. . . . It may suit the purposes of statesmen to veil the Statue of Liberty. . . . Governments must treat other Governments with external respect, however black their origin or foul their deeds ; but happily the Press is under no such trammels, and while diplomatists are exchanging courtesies can unmask the mean heart that beats beneath a star, or point out the bloodstains on the hand which grasps a sceptre. The duty of the journalist is the same as that of the historian—to seek out truth above all things, and to present to his readers, not such things as statecraft would wish them to know, but the truth as near as he can attain it. . . . Let those who will preach silence on crimes which they cannot deny and dare not even palliate ; we have been trained in another school, and will not shirk from boldly declaring what we freely think, though it should be our disagreeable duty to tell Lord Derby that he condescends to be the fool of the party which he pretends to lead, and Lord Grey that he is the scourge of the party which he is permitted to govern.”

The young journalist who acts on these lines and in this spirit is not likely to fail.





# Accountancy

BY

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THE vocation of Accountancy may be divided into two sections—that of the Commercial Accountant and that of the Professional Accountant.

It will be well to deal first with the case of the Commercial Accountant, because to a large extent the functions of the Professional Accountant are an extension and generalisation of those of his commercial brother.

## THE COMMERCIAL ACCOUNTANT.

There is much that is attractive in the work of the Commercial Accountant in a manufacturing or merchanting concern, for although to the uninitiated it may appear that all he has to do is to record in the books of the company or firm the transactions of the business in money or money's worth, the Accountant has in addition to keep these records in such a manner that it is possible for him to prepare statistics which will indicate to the executive in control of the business just what has happened and what is happening. His figures are the searchlight which illuminates the whole, which shows whether the expectations of the executive are being realised, which draws attention to the weak spots in the organisation, showing just where waste is occurring or where estimates are not being justified.

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Enlightened estimates can only be based on facts, and these facts are best supplied by true accounts which record recent experience.

The financial attraction for the Commercial Accountant is substantial, for, from being looked upon not many years ago as a mere book-keeper, he has ascended in the estimation of the mercantile community, until now he is looked up to as an official whose work is no small factor in the success of the business. This recognition of his worth has brought with it increased emoluments, and it is not uncommon to find Chief Accountants to large organisations whose remuneration exceeds £1,000 per annum, while there are some who receive more than twice that amount. And who will say what is the earning capacity of the one-time Chief Accountant who has, by his merit, obtained the occupancy of the managing director's chair?

The qualifications necessary to fit one for the post of Chief Accountant to a large concern are similar to those specified later as essential in the lad who would aspire to success in the accountancy profession, with the addition that he must have the ability to organise and control a large staff. He must first and foremost have a sound knowledge of commercial book-keeping and accountancy, including cost accounting, and should be acquainted with all the up-to-date office mechanical appliances. He must be able to see what information obtainable from the records and accounts under his control will be of assistance to the executive in their management of the business, and have the ability so to organise the work of his department that the information may be promptly and economically supplied.

There is only one royal road to success in Commercial Accountancy, as in every other occupation, and that is to do the job better than it has ever been done before, and to keep on doing it so. Thus a lad entering a commercial house who aspires to the post of Chief Accountant must not rest content with continuing to do the work allotted to him as well as his



predecessor did it. He must be ever on the look-out for some better way, some way that will result in benefit to the business in which he is employed, and that way will only be found if he will continue to acquire knowledge on the subjects that have a bearing on the work upon which he is employed.

### THE PROFESSIONAL ACCOUNTANT.

The term Professional Accountant is here used to designate one who makes it his business primarily to provide a means of co-ordinating or criticising from an independent standpoint either the accounting systems or the actual records of other parties.

In the exercise of these functions he acquires on the one hand a facility of handling accounts, and on the other an impartial standpoint which fits him to act as intermediary in disputes, and to occupy positions where knowledge of business methods and accounts, coupled with impartiality, is essential, such as arbitrator, liquidator, receiver or trustee. These functions are mentioned because they have come to be regarded as a natural extension of a Professional Accountant's practice, and often a profitable extension ; but they are not essential functions of a Professional Accountant, whose business is primarily to deal with accounts and records.

In the choice of any career due account must be taken of a boy's mentality, and the general tendencies he may show. Accountancy is no exception. A boy who has a highly artistic temperament is not likely to find the work congenial. On taking up the profession a boy need not be a highly skilled mathematician, though in order to enable him to pass his examination he must to some extent take up the study of mathematics. He should, however, show a certain aptitude for figures ; and accuracy, methodical ways, powers of concentration and perseverance are all important attributes in the boy who would make a success in the profession. These qualities in a boy, combined with a quick perception and an

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analytical type of mind, will fit him for many occupations, but above all they will fit him for the profession of Accountancy.

Briefly, the qualities required in a boy who is to become successful as a Professional Accountant may be said to be : honesty, aptitude for figures, methodical ways, thoroughness, clear thinking. He should be alert but not necessarily suspicious, for though much of his work will consist of auditing, an auditor is not a detective. It is not too much to say that a thorough training in Accountancy will prove invaluable to a young man setting out on any description of commercial career.

A few of the openings outside the profession for an Accountant who has been trained in the office of a Professional Accountant are Chief Accountant in manufacturing, merchanting and service concerns, Secretary to limited companies and Auditor on the staff of mercantile businesses, while an accountancy training is also a valuable adjunct to Estate Management, Farming, and other outdoor pursuits.

The financial prospects before a young man who takes to Professional Accountancy are at least a competence and at most a moderate fortune—prospects somewhat similar to those of most other professions. There is not the opportunity to accumulate a great fortune that is met with in commerce, as the element of pecuniary risk, for which large compensation is necessary, is absent from the business of the Accountant. After qualifying, a young man may expect to commence with a salary of £200 to £250 a year as audit clerk in the office of a practising Accountant, and thereafter his progress will wholly depend upon the ability which he displays in the performance of his duties. With reasonable ability he should, in the course of a few years, be earning as a senior audit clerk with a London firm up to £500 a year or even more, and have the immediate prospect of promotion to a managing clerkship with its added responsibilities and correspondingly increased emoluments, which usually vary with the fortunes of the firm to which he



is attached. Thereafter there is always the further prospect of a partnership in the business.

It may be that the young qualified man is not content to await this promotion, and then if he desires to remain within the profession he has the option of either beginning practice on his own account or of acquiring a partnership in another practice. If he has a considerable circle of business friends who are prepared to support his efforts to establish a practice, or if he is assured of a nucleus of work that will more than pay his office expenses, the building up of a remunerative practice should not be beyond the powers of an intelligent young man. Similarly his efforts, if he obtains a partnership in an established practice, should lead to extension of the practice which would be remunerative to the firm and consequently to himself.

Now as to the means of qualifying. There are in England two bodies whose diplomas are most widely recognised as of value to a Professional Accountant, viz. the Institute of Chartered Accountants, the older and larger body, and the Society of Incorporated Accountants and Auditors. Consequently, whether a young man desires, after qualification, to remain inside the profession or merely to use the profession as a stepping-stone to a permanent position in a financial or mercantile business, the qualification of a Chartered or Incorporated Accountant is likely to be of greater value to him than that of any of the other Accountant Societies which have come into existence since these two organisations were founded.

The regulations of the Institute of Chartered Accountants provide that before a candidate can pass his examinations and be admitted a member he must have served under articles to a member in practice. The period to be served under articles is five years, except that for University graduates the period is reduced to three years. Before a person can be articulated to a member he must be 16 years of age, and, as a test of his general education, pass a preliminary examination, unless he is a University graduate, or can produce evidence

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that he has already passed one of certain specified examinations at least equivalent to the preliminary examination of the Institute. A person who is not under 35 years of age and who, at the date of his application, has been for ten years continuously in service as a clerk to a Chartered Accountant may, also, be exempted from the preliminary examination.

In some offices it is the custom to pay to articled clerks salaries which, during the course of the articles, recoup in part or in whole the premium paid at the beginning of the articles, while in other offices no salary is paid during the articles. As in the case of the premium, salary is a matter for arrangement between the member and the boy's parent or guardian.

From the time a lad is articled until he has completed his service under articles he cannot expect to earn sufficient to cover his maintenance—he is usually a learner only, and the cost of his learning can be computed by adding to the cost of his maintenance during the service of his articles the premium paid for his articles, the cost of books and coaching fees and the examination fees (which are moderate), less any small salary or gratuities he may receive from his principal during his articles. The whole of these expenses, however, together with the cost in time may be looked upon as an investment which should produce a very good return.

The period of training may seem long and the realisation of the reward delayed, but it will be found that in other professions of similar standing the period of education is no shorter and the reward when it comes is no greater. The chances of development are certainly good. The profession is as yet a young one ; it made great strides before the war, but has in the last few years developed in a way that would surprise and gratify its founders.



# Banking

BY

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THE question of choosing a career is not merely one of choosing an employment which will give a sufficient return for one's services. The initial problem for the individual is one of seeking the sphere best fitted for the adequate development of his various innate and acquired capabilities and characteristics, and the most that one can do to help him is to outline the possibilities of a career such as that of Banking and leave him to judge for himself in the light of self-knowledge.

Unless a boy is willing to work hard and to work enthusiastically, he had better not seek to enter the banking world. It means steady and continuous application in the effort to attain a knowledge that should be almost encyclopædic, in order to cope with the multifarious problems of a banker's daily life.

If the *bank clerk* desires in later years to develop into the *banker*, his mental and personal traits should be such as to enable him to carry with ease the heavy responsibility involved in his position, as a moral trustee for the public and the traders of the country. These qualities, comprising on the one hand tact and enthusiasm and all that is meant by that rather vague word "personality," and on the other hand the habit of thinking and arguing out things for oneself on a wide scale, and of adjusting one's mind with agility to the manifold daily problems of a banker's life, should carry one through the difficult early years to ultimate success.

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For a boy anxious to enter a bank there are various classes of institutions to which he might apply. In the City of London there are the foreign and colonial banks, the five big joint-stock banks, and firms such as the acceptance and discount houses whose functions are somewhat specialised. In addition, there are the group of joint-stock banks whose stronghold is Lancashire, and who, in some cases, have also offices in London. The remarks that follow apply more particularly to the five large joint-stock banks known as the "big five," viz. the Midland, Lloyds, Barclays, Westminster, and the National Provincial Bank, these being the institutions which, in nine cases out of ten, the applicant would approach; but as conditions of entry and service vary slightly in each case, it must be understood that the observations that follow are of design quite general in character.

As these institutions are constantly seeking to recruit their personnel from the most promising sources, they have set up a high educational standard for candidates, as evidenced either in a special entrance examination or by past academic distinctions. Moreover, the suitability of each candidate is estimated at a personal interview with an official of the bank, in the attempt to ensure that persons entering the bank shall be adapted in every way for their new profession.

When a suitable vacancy occurs a youth who has passed the necessary tests enters upon a period of probation at the head office or one of the branch offices of the bank, either in London or the country, every effort being made to place him near his home. It is of primary importance that a clerk should sit for the Associate Examination held by the Institute of Bankers, and he should, in addition, utilise to the fullest extent any educational facilities provided by his own bank.

We may now turn our attention to the youth's actual work in the bank, and consider the openings for one who shows himself of more than common calibre. There is a very prevalent belief that a junior clerk commencing in a bank is subjected during the hours indicated on the plate at the bank entrance



to the monotonous experience of adding up unending columns of figures. Like most popular impressions this one sadly errs from the truth. The raw junior, especially if keen, soon finds his feet in the office to which he is attached, and within a short space of time should have become conversant with the general routine. The earlier duties in a bank clerk's career, although of a comparatively modest description, are of very vital importance to a lad's future. Experience shows that whoever does the small things in life well is going to maintain that standard of efficiency in the future. Such perfection attained in the preliminary stages of training will probably be reflected in his character, and in later years, when he has more important duties to perform, he will never be satisfied unless such duties are carried out with the same accuracy and efficiency as he achieved in the earlier days of his banking experience.

After his preliminary training the bank clerk is ready to undertake responsibility, and in course of time he may find an opportunity of displaying his abilities as a cashier and so of coming into personal contact with the public. In this position presence and personality are of vital importance, and a clerk who justifies the confidence reposed in him may find it merely a stepping-stone to higher things. If he has a marked ability for organising, and displays a competent knowledge of the bank book-keeping system, he may become chief clerk at a branch. In this position the responsibility of the whole of the general office organisation will devolve upon him, and his manager will soon be able to estimate his qualities. When a man has made good in this position he may reasonably expect rapid promotion, either to the managership of one of the numerous new branches which are continually being opened or possibly to a post as Assistant Manager at a branch which is already well established.

On the whole, the prospects of promotion in a bank are quite as good and probably better than in the majority of similar commercial occupations, especially for a man who is

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determined to equip himself properly, and to justify himself in whatever work he may be occupied. In the earlier days of banking a good many of the well-known bankers began their careers as men of means, but the situation is entirely changed as the result of the great development of joint-stock banking, since the establishment of the first joint-stock bank in London nearly 100 years ago. A large proportion of those responsible for shaping the policy of our big banks are men who have risen from the ranks to the highest executive positions through ability and hard work, and in the banking world the way is always open for the ambitious and capable man. One sees frequent announcements of the appointment to important positions of men who started at the very beginning as junior clerks on leaving school.

It may be said that the number of these appointments is very few, and that, in view of the size of bank staffs, the possibility of an obscure clerk obtaining an important head office position, for example, is very remote. To some extent this is true, but it is no more true than of other professions, such as Law and Medicine. In these cases the number of those reaching the top of their profession is very small, but every barrister newly called to the Bar and every doctor who has just qualified has an equal chance, and the best man will generally in course of time assert his superiority. It is the same in banking, and the junior clerk to-day is the possible General Manager of to-morrow. This prospect, however, is one that most people cannot hope to realise, and yet there are many other opportunities for the man of more than average ability. As I have mentioned before, the big banks are opening new branches almost every day, and if a man appointed to one of these branches makes good use of his opportunities, he may reasonably anticipate promotion at a later date to a more important branch in one of the large industrial towns. The member of the staff who becomes a Branch Manager has the opportunity of utilising in his everyday work the practical and theoretical knowledge he has slowly acquired, and if he



discharges his duties well he will soon come under the notice of head office. From the managerial staff appointments are, from time to time, made to the minor head office positions, and an official who is offered one of these may find that it is the first step towards a higher executive post. There are, moreover, other more specialised opportunities for those who have taken the trouble to equip themselves accordingly. Each bank maintains a staff of inspectors who are experts in matters of bank accounting and bank organisation. The country is divided into sections, and a number of officials are allotted to inspect the branches in each section. This type of work appeals greatly to those with a keen investigating mind, and provides a pleasing variety of employment. For men who have the qualifications there are also many specialised positions at head office. All the large banks have expanded their foreign departments enormously since the beginning of the war, and have formed them into a special Overseas or Foreign Branch to deal with the requirements of the bank's customers. Several of the banks have constituted a separate company with branches on the Continent. The staff engaged on foreign business has naturally increased in a commensurate degree, and the large banks now employ several hundred men on this class of work alone. There is here, then, ample opportunity for the man who has made himself an expert in foreign exchange and in the problems relating to the financing of imports and exports, and, of course, those who are proficient in one or more foreign languages will find their additional qualification a considerable advantage. With the rapid growth of the banks by amalgamation and natural expansion, moreover, it has been found necessary to form various departments with very specialised functions in connection with head office work; such are, for instance, the Law Department, the Shipping Department, which works in close conjunction with the banks' foreign correspondents with regard to the collection of ships' freights, etc., and the Intelligence Department. Here is the opportunity for a man with a legal turn of mind or a bent

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towards economic theory and statistical investigation. In some cases trained men have been brought from outside to manage these departments ; but this is not by any means a fixed rule, and the positions are open to anybody within the bank who is fit to undertake the responsibility. From this very brief outline it is evident that the scope and variety of opportunity open to an employee of a bank are probably unique in the commercial world. The ramifications of a large joint-stock bank are now so extensive, and its functions have increased so greatly that the members of its staff have the strongest possible inducement to acquire special qualifications in addition to the general training given in an ordinary branch.

From a detached point of view, then, the banking profession offers chances of promotion which may, relatively to other occupations, be described as good. There is no rigorous system of staff grading, such as exists in the Civil Service, in which it is quite the exception for a man in one grade, after attaining the highest position therein, to be promoted to the grade above. In a bank every junior clerk has an excellent chance of making in due course a competent living, and the possibility of something better if he shows sufficient ability. The managers of branches are required to report periodically on the progress of each member of their staff, and these reports are recorded in a special department at head office formed to deal solely with staff matters. This department is organised under the Staff Manager in such a way as to facilitate collation of the Branch Managers' reports with other independent information, supplemented by the personal knowledge which the Staff Manager obtains in the usual course of his duties. It is obvious that with the increasing centralisation ensuing from frequent amalgamations, some such system as the above is absolutely necessary, if a fair judgment is to be made of the individual members of a staff numbering several thousand. The greatest efforts are made to secure a just estimate, as far as humanly possible, of the capabilities of each man. In this



way, even the youngest member of the staff need not feel that he is submerged, unheard of and unnoticed, a single molecule in an inexhaustible sea. If he shows that he has faculties worth encouraging he will, in time, notice in many small ways that those above him are quietly observing his progress, and opportunities will be given him to increase his practical experience of the various phases of the bank's work. Should he be a man possessed of only average ability and power of application, he will find that banks offer, in return for steady, hard work, terms of service that are probably unequalled. A man of this type working in a small office for a private employer would probably be dissatisfied with his salary, and would be subject to the constant fear of dismissal in slack times. A bank offers to this average man a fair and adequate salary and, moreover, the nature of banking is such that it is essential for a bank to maintain its staff of fully-trained men when trade is at a low ebb in order to provide for the volume of business consequent upon a further turn in the wheel of the trade cycle. In other words, it pays a bank to offer its employees the advantage of security of tenure. No man need fear dismissal except in the very remote event of the liquidation of the institution in which he is employed, or as a consequence of his own misconduct.

These considerations are not the only points wherein Banking offers a decidedly attractive opening. A man burdened with family responsibilities has little opportunity to make an adequate provision for old age, and in view of this the English banks have formulated schemes whereby liberal pensions are provided at the retiring age, which in most cases is fixed at a lower limit of 60 years and a higher limit of 65 years. These pension schemes are, in most cases, non-contributory. Many banks, in addition, have a contributory scheme making provision for the widow or dependents of a member of the staff in the event of his premature decease, and in the case of at least one of the five big banks the staff themselves have organised a very attractive sickness and accident fund and a mutual

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life assurance fund. An efficient member of the staff, moreover, may very often rely upon the generosity of the bank to help him fight against unforeseen misfortune. There is an old controversy as to whether a corporation like a bank has a personality, but in dealing with its staff it certainly has a conscience.

In this review of Banking as a career it has only been possible to give the briefest indication of its merits and demerits, and many details have been omitted which may be obtained on application to the bank Staff Managers, who, moreover, are always willing to give help and advice. Enough has been said, however, to show that in the case of an intelligent boy just leaving school his advisers might do much worse than consider the prospects offered by banking. For the keen and ambitious youth promotion is steady and reasonably sure, and he is certain of retaining his position provided nothing untoward occurs. The work is interesting and attractive to those who have the power of seeing beyond the necessary everyday routine, and can visualise their position as a small cog in the huge machine of modern commerce ; and every encouragement is given to a man with this capability to train himself for a post in which he is continually called upon to consider the fluctuating needs of the nation's trade. A bank has no use for a man who is not prepared to put his utmost into his work, but a capable and keen clerk has the prospect before him of reasonable rewards sufficient to provide for the ordinary amenities of life, a fair social status, and liberal provision for old age.



# Insurance

BY

SIR EDWARD MOUNTAIN, Bart.,

*Chairman and Managing Director of the Eagle, Star and  
British Dominions Insurance Co. Ltd.*

**I**NSURANCE as a career holds out many possibilities. In order to reach any prominent position, or having once reached it, it is as necessary in this profession as in any other to expend a considerable amount of time and hard work in acquiring the technical knowledge that is absolutely necessary. Even then, although a vast amount of technical knowledge has been acquired, it may be found that judgment to apply the knowledge is lacking. However wide the knowledge, without judgment success is not likely to be great; but the young man who wishes to take up Insurance as a career, and who fails to acquire all the knowledge that is possible, is certainly not giving himself a fair chance. So highly specialised is each branch of Insurance business that it would be extremely difficult for any student, however conscientious and hard-working he might be, to be an expert in every branch.

My advice would, therefore, be to anyone who wishes to take up this career to endeavour to obtain a general knowledge of all branches, but to specialise in one.

There are many opportunities given to-day to those who are ready to take them, by which they are able to obtain much Insurance knowledge outside their own office.

There is a most excellent institution, called the Chartered Insurance Institute, which grants degrees as a result of examinations.

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As a general idea of the practical work of Insurance business I will turn to the different departments.

### LIFE DEPARTMENT.

First of all, it is usually controlled by a Life Manager, who in most cases is himself an Actuary, assisted by one or more Actuaries. The Life Manager's function is to be at the head of his own department and to control all those under him.

The Actuaries work out all the statistical information which a Life Insurance Office requires, and keep the Life Manager supplied with it.

The amount received by the Ordinary Offices for premiums and purchase money for annuities in 1923 was £51,473,011, while the premiums of the Industrial Offices were £31,580,117, together £83,053,128. The interest, less tax and miscellaneous receipts, amounted to £23,013,335 and £5,547,160 respectively, together £28,560,495, so that the total income was £111,613,623. The funds of the Ordinary Life Offices amounted to £479,543,714, and of the Industrial Offices to £111,450,706, making together the vast sum of £590,994,420, to which may be added the Paid-up Capital of £29,827,575, giving a grand total of £620,821,995.

I may mention that the revenue of the United Kingdom for the year 1913-14 was £198,243,000 and that the total debt of the United Kingdom on the 31st March, 1914, was £661,473,765.

It is manifest that the collection of such a large income and the administration of such very vast funds require the services of many highly-skilled officials and clerks. Comparatively few of these are or can be Actuaries. Many of them must deal with the acquisition of new business, the renewals, the claims and surrenders, and the accounts, all of which involve a vast amount of detail and demand intelligence, accuracy and business knowledge.



Consequently, there are many desirable posts which carry with them much responsibility, and therefore substantial remuneration. These can only be attained by patient and determined effort, which enables the worker to climb steadily up the ladder of advancement. The youth who begins as a junior clerk at a salary of £50 a year may in time reach a position in which his salary may be £5,000 a year, but there are only a few on whom fortune and industry confer this favour.

#### MARINE INSURANCE.

The head of the Marine Insurance Department is called the Underwriter, and he, invariably, has a deputy. Their functions are to accept or decline the various marine risks that are offered to them. It is a very highly specialised profession requiring large knowledge and experience, and it is especially a profession in which judgment plays a very large part.

The best training for an Underwriter, in my opinion, is to start with a broker at Lloyd's, working your way up until you are able to offer, as a broker, risks for underwriting in the market. In offering marine risks, with which the broker has to deal, to the various Underwriters at Lloyd's and the Insurance Companies, the student requires a unique knowledge of the opinions that various Underwriters hold, which is invaluable to him in future life.

Another method of entering this walk of life is to obtain a post in the Marine Department of some Insurance Company, and gradually work up from one position to another. The experience gained, however, is not nearly so varied as in the former case, nor are the opportunities so probable.

There is in some Marine Insurance Companies the important post of Marine Manager, whose duty is to supervise the whole of the clerical work of that Department, which includes a great amount of statistical matters, systems of filing and correspondence. For such a position a general knowledge of Underwriting and also of all routine work is required.

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Another important position in the Marine Section is that of Claims Settler, which requires a profound knowledge of Marine Insurance and the Law connected therewith.

One of the best methods of qualifying for this position is to start in the office of an Average Adjuster.

An Average Adjuster is a separate profession which is of a highly technical nature, dealing with adjustment of claims and drawing up settlements in connection therewith.

### FIRE DEPARTMENT.

Taking the Fire Department and the education which will be of most use to enable a young man to succeed in this branch of Insurance business, I should recommend a good all-round course of subjects, in which the mathematical and scientific predominate.

British Insurance Companies have built up a reputation all over the world for stability and fair dealing, in consequence of which the foreign fire business of an Insurance Society is a most important factor. The study of languages, therefore, will be extremely useful, more especially French, German, and Spanish.

On the scientific side a knowledge of electricity and chemistry is of great importance.

Knowledge is required for estimating and supervising the elements which may cause an outbreak of fire, and for estimating the amount of damage caused by a fire.

### ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Although the Life, Fire, and Marine Departments hold many possibilities for the successful man, the Accident Department also has a very wide scope and the knowledge required is very varied.

Of the large number of transactions by an Accident Department many have only arisen during quite recent



times, in consequence of which the business is not so stereotyped or set or so bound up with practice or convention.

The Accident Department of Insurance Companies has grown in volume and importance very rapidly, with the result that there are great opportunities in this Department.

The principal reason that the Accident Department holds good prospects is owing to the wide knowledge required, for in addition to the chief position the Manager of the Department must have round him capable assistants to deal with the various sections of the department, *i.e.* Employers' Liability, Motor Liability (third party), Fidelity, Personal Sickness and Accident, Burglary, Plate Glass, Live Stock, and each of these sections calls for expert assistants.

It will thus be seen that in all departments of Insurance anyone who wishes to obtain a prominent position must be prepared to work and study very hard. Not only is there a large amount of work to be done during office hours, but in most cases it implies further work and study outside the office if he wishes to specialise in any particular subject.

The work, however, is extremely interesting, but the boy who, having obtained a situation in an Insurance Office, thinks that the obtaining of the position is all that is necessary, which so many unfortunately do, is making a great mistake; only by his own efforts will he succeed.





# The Stock Exchange

BY

S. OWEN DALY.

**A**LTHOUGH I have been in a stockbroker's office as clerk and principal for over thirty years, I find it very difficult to advise friends when asked the question whether or not the Stock Exchange is a good business to put a boy into ; in fact, unless I know the boy's character and temperament I do not accept the responsibility of advising. It is, therefore, very difficult to generalise on the subject of whether the Stock Exchange offers a good opening to a boy who is starting city life, but I will try in the space at my disposal to put the points as they appear to me.

As the public often have a very hazy idea of what the Stock Exchange is, I may explain that the London Stock Exchange (and in this article when I mention the Stock Exchange I am only referring to the London Stock Exchange) is an institution which is controlled by a Board of Managers and a committee which is elected annually by the members, and which—as it is responsible for the routine and discipline of the members—is the body which most interests the members. Members are of two classes, Brokers and Jobbers. A Broker is an agent who deals for a member of the public, *i.e.* his client, and a Jobber a principal who specialises in certain stocks and buys or sells to Brokers or other Jobbers. At present there are about 3,900 members, approximately half of them Brokers and half Jobbers. In addition to members there are Authorised Clerks, *i.e.* clerks who are authorised by the committee to deal on account of their firm, and Unauthorised

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Clerks, who have the entrée to the floor of the House but are not allowed to deal.

I will first take the case of a boy who enters a Broker's office as a salaried clerk, and whose alternative would be to go into a bank or commercial house in the same capacity. This boy would probably be about 16 years of age, with a fair education, and would start in the post department as an office boy. My advice here would be, if possible, to get into a comparatively small office, where the chances of showing his value and seeing the working of all sides of the business are greater than in a very large office, where there is always a tendency to get posted to a special department, and consequently never thoroughly learn the whole business. His duties at first, in addition to the usual jobs of stamping, posting, and filing letters, would be jobs peculiar to a Stock Exchange business, such as delivering transfers, taking deeds to be stamped, collecting differences from Jobbers, etc.—duties which in themselves are straightforward and simple, but in the execution of which a smart lad has opportunities of showing whether he is above or below the average, and coming under the notice of the manager of the office will probably give him a chance of being promoted as soon as there is a vacancy in the office. As office boy he will probably receive about 20s. per week; his hours will be from 9 or 9.15 till his work is finished, which in normal times would be about 6 o'clock, with probably two or three late hours each fortnight, and no Saturday work. In busy times the hours are, of course, later, and in boom times he will probably have to arrange to sleep in the City several nights, and be at the office on Saturdays to clear up.

Having been promoted to the office after six months or a year, he will then learn the use of the Jobber's ledger, clients' ledger, transfer department, etc., and in a few years he should have a good general knowledge of how a Broker's business is run. It is then that the question arises of whether it is policy for him to remain in the office with a chance of becoming



manager or cashier, or whether it would be better to apply to his firm for a position as Unauthorised Clerk in the House with a chance of becoming authorised later ; and it is at this stage that the boy's own sense must guide him. I have noticed that some clerks who have made themselves valuable in the office are more or less a failure when they get into the House, and, *vice versa*, some clerks who have been more or less a failure in the office have turned out excellent House clerks.

A clever clerk will realise that if he elects to remain in the office he will be limited to probably a maximum salary of £500 a year, with a firm of average size, but that if he goes into the House he will get into touch with other Brokers, and will have opportunities of forming a connection amongst them which would be valuable to him as a Jobber. He could then become Authorised Clerk to a firm of Jobbers with possibilities of making a good income, in time making himself a member, and jobbing on his own account. Although the average lad of the class we are discussing would not expect to finish up as a member of the Stock Exchange, jobbing on his own account, there is no reason why a smart boy, who is prepared to work hard and thoroughly learn his business, should not do so ; and my advice to a boy of this stamp who thinks of the Stock Exchange as his career would be to enter a comparatively small Broker's office, learn all he can as quickly as he can, and then try and get into the House, and ultimately start jobbing. If he remains on the broking side of the business he will find it very difficult to build up a clientele, as probably owing to social and financial conditions he will not have the opportunity of meeting people in a position to put business his way ; whereas, inside the House itself as a Jobber, these conditions will not count, as his clientele will then be amongst Brokers, and his chance of getting business from them will depend most on his own exertions and capabilities.

The other case to consider is that of the Public School boy, who would probably have the alternative of a profession or sufficient influence to obtain a post in some business where he

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could, if necessary, later on introduce capital and buy a partnership. There is no doubt that the Stock Exchange as a business has great attractions for the boy of this class, who has to decide what he is going to do ; and I am afraid in a good many cases the attractions are principally based on a mistaken idea that the Stock Exchange life is an easy one, with plenty of holidays, no work on Saturdays, comparatively short hours, and an altogether easy method of making a very good income. I may say at once that anyone who has to advise a boy with these ideas should disillusion him, and explain that to make good on the Stock Exchange requires just as much hard work and grit as any other profession or business, whilst to make a mess of things is perhaps easier than anywhere else.

Although there is no special scholarship necessary for the Stock Exchange career, and no examination to be passed to gain admittance, a boy must have a good education, plenty of common sense, tact, and personality, in addition to more than average stability, to expect to do any good. To a Public School boy with these qualifications, and with the determination to work, I think the Stock Exchange offers as good opportunities as any other business.

The first question that arises is whether a boy should start at, say, 18 years old when leaving school, or whether it is better to put in three years at the University. The fact that the younger one starts the easier it is to start at the bottom, makes the former preferable. Having decided to start on leaving school at, say, 18, I would again advise the boy to get into a comparatively small office. Although in some cases a premium is paid and a boy starts as an articled clerk, I think it is much better to start as an ordinary clerk and thoroughly learn the business from the bottom, and I think it will generally be found that the Public School boy, owing to his training, will get on much more quickly than the boy who has not had the same advantages, although very probably a worse writer and slower at figures than the boy who has not had so much spent on his education. The Public School boy will



take a much keener interest in his work, and although, perhaps, inclined to take it too much as a sport at first, will, as soon as he sees the necessity for method and care in detail, push his way ahead through the post and office routine work very quickly. As soon as he has mastered the office work he will go into the House as an Unauthorised Clerk, when his duties will be to check bargains, get prices, pass names, and generally get the atmosphere of the Stock Exchange. After a couple of years as Unauthorised Clerk he will have to make up his mind what he is going to do, and everything will of course depend on circumstances. If he has influential friends who can put a lot of business in his way, he will probably elect to be a Broker. If, however, he has a good connection amongst Brokers, it may pay him better to job. Whichever he does, he will probably join a firm as Authorised Clerk on commission terms either with a Broker or Jobber, which will enable him to get the necessary experience, and at the same time consolidate his own connection. Before actually starting on his own account or in partnership, it will be necessary for him to become a member of the Stock Exchange, which at present costs six hundred guineas entrance fee, with one hundred guineas subscription, the applicant, also, having to buy three Stock Exchange shares, present price about £115 each, and a nomination from a retiring member. He must, also, be recommended by three members, who have to go surety for him for £500 each for four years. These terms apply to a candidate for admission who has not had four years as a clerk in the House or Settling Room, with three years minimum in the House. A clerk with this service can become a member at the reduced price of three hundred guineas entrance fee, fifty guineas subscription, one Stock Exchange share, and a nomination with only two sureties for £300 each.

In giving these two cases I have tried to outline as shortly as possible to the layman the openings there are on the Stock Exchange, and I think that for a boy with average intelligence, who is prepared to work hard learning his business for about

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five or six years on a salary, before expecting to know sufficient to strike out on a commission basis on his own account, the opportunities of making a living on the Stock Exchange are as good as, or better than, in any other business. At the same time he must realise that it is a very personal business, that it is dependent on himself whether he makes good or not, and it is a business in which connection is much more important than capital. He must also realise that it is not a business where money is made easily. One hears so much about fortunes being made and lost on the Stock Exchange that the public is rather inclined to think fortunes are made by the Stock Exchange members, whereas of course, in most cases they are made (or lost) by members of the public dealing through the Stock Exchange. At the same time, the facilities for speculating are so handy for members that a boy who is inclined to gamble or is at all weak willed will be much better advised to take up another business.

Another point which always makes me very chary of advising any boy to take up the business (unless he has a very stable character) is that we rather go to extremes. Our staffs are either overworked or underworked, and there is so much out-of-office work for a junior Stock Exchange clerk that when times are slack he has too much opportunity of being out and slacking, and, consequently, forming bad business habits.

The business itself is a most interesting one. I suppose there is no other business in which it is so necessary to keep in close touch with everything that is happening all over the world. There are very few items in the newspapers which do not affect directly or indirectly some stock or share. It is a business which brings a Broker into close touch with all sorts of people—professional, banking, commercial, and industrial—and a Jobber with his fellow-members, amongst whom I think we can claim that there is as big a proportion of good sportsmen as in any other profession. It is a business which offers a good living to the man who sticks to it. It is, also, a business where



one's commercial morality has to be above reproach, and a career which offers to any boy, with the reservations I have made at the beginning of this article, a life of usefulness to the community, and profit and pride to himself, which I take it are the principal ideals that everyone has in view in advising a boy on the choice of a career.





# Business

BY

ALFRED SALMON,

*Managing Director and Chairman of the Board of  
J. Lyons & Co. Ltd.*

**I** HAVE been in business since I left school, and I left school very early. I was born into a business family and was surrounded from childhood by business people. This may have prejudiced me in favour of business, but it should at least qualify me to say something about the merits and conditions of such a career.

I cannot remember ever having desired to adopt any other career. Business has always interested me ; it has given me all the excitement I needed, and sometimes more than was good for me. I know of no profession which could have given me more in those respects. And although some professions, such as that of doctor or surgeon, may appear more directly of service to the individual, it has to be remembered that the very life of a community, particularly of the present-day English community, depends on commerce, so that I think no one need be deterred from entering the business world by fear that he will not be serving his fellow-men. Nor do I think anyone should hide from himself the plain fact that most people adopt either business or a profession in the first place as a way of earning a living. To be independent is in itself a laudable ambition. To my mind it is not the least of the attractions of the commercial life that for a boy without either exceptional mental gifts or financial support who is prepared to work steadily and systematically it leads to a

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livelihood sufficient for independence more rapidly and certainly than any other career I know.

It is difficult to set about describing its attractions to the boy who has no knowledge of it, and who is, perhaps, surrounded by people who have never thought of any means of livelihood except the professions. Undoubtedly environment has a great influence in shaping a boy's desires, and he absorbs in his own family and at school the ideas of those about him. I believe it is only of late years that commerce has been looked upon as fit for any person with ambition to be thought or called a gentleman. In many cases the thoughts turn only to a business career as a last resort, much as in past days the younger sons of the landed gentry used to turn to the Church. Those who were not blessed with a superfluity of this world's goods, our Public Schools and Universities have hitherto turned mainly into schoolmasters and clergymen, but I am assured that the Universities are now encouraging their young men to enter the ranks of business men. Perhaps this is due to the fact that, whereas until recently there has been a general idea that the whole desire of the business man was to buy cheap and sell dear, this is now a definitely old-fashioned notion, and the Universities have recognised it as such. By dwelling on this change a little, I can perhaps give some slight sketch of the situation which boys going into business will have to meet, and which they should keep at the back of their minds against the day when they may be called to take their share in management.

The life of the early trader, which seemed to be so full of romance and adventure, is no longer possible; we no longer leave the ancestral home with a shipload of beads and come back, after wonderful adventures amongst untutored savages, with shiploads of gold and precious stones, with which we can found another family of what our Labour friends describe as "the idle rich." The so-called savage has acquired a certain amount of knowledge, and nowadays, if you wish to trade with him, you find he has a very shrewd idea of the



value of what he is trading. He knows how to ask a good price for his own wares, and he is not prepared to accept mere rubbish in exchange for them.

The working classes, who form by far the larger part of the purchasing community, are learning that the best is the cheapest; and the business man of to-day must be prepared, if he wishes to conduct a successful business, to sell a good article at a reasonable price and be satisfied with a modest return on his capital. There is no doubt still the type of trading called profiteering. But profiteering can only exist alongside ignorance, and the opportunities for those who are so minded are becoming rarer as our knowledge increases.

It is probably because of the spread of education that it is now being acknowledged that commerce may be an honourable career, and it is also being recognised that it requires something more than the mere trader's instinct to succeed under modern conditions. For example, it happens to be one of my duties to sit on the board of a great hospital. One day a person in the Casualty Department, suffering from some not very serious trouble, was ordered by the doctor a bottle of medicine, some liniment, and some ointment. They contained ingredients collected from all parts of the world. In the medicine there was quince, which came from the cinchona trees growing on the Andes in South America, and there was an extract from poisonous seeds which were brought from India, and an infusion from a root brought from Bechuanaland. In the ointment was some mercury which had been brought from the Ural Mountains in Russia, some spermaceti from the sperm whale hauled off the coast of Greenland, and some lanolin from the wool of Australian sheep. In the lint was camphor brought from Japan, opium from Asia Minor, and olive oil from the shores of the Mediterranean. The patient paid a shilling for these, and it very nearly covered the cost. To have collected those things must have cost tens of thousands of pounds. Commerce had brought them within reach of that poor patient. And it is

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obvious that behind my list lies a vast range of varied, interesting, useful and efficient activity with little room for profiteering anywhere.

There lies what is sometimes called "the romance of modern commerce." But I think romance depends much more on our way of looking at things than on the things themselves. If you have an eye and ear for romance, no doubt you will find it in any occupation. If you are not imaginative in that way, I am the last person to say that in modern business, particularly in that part of it which falls to the lot of a young man, the element of romance is so obviously present as to force itself upon you. Business affairs tend nowadays to get more and more into the hands of large companies and corporations. The individual shopkeeper has been supplanted by the great stores; the merchant, who is the middleman collecting goods from the ends of the earth and supplying them to the distributor, is gradually being pushed out by the manufacturing concern which acts as its own middleman, collecting the raw material and working it up into its final condition, and itself distributing. It is this last type of business that I have been occupied with. It is the only kind, therefore, of which I can speak. In such a house the interest of the work gains by added variety—it is, so to speak, to some extent, internationalised. But on the other hand, this added variety cannot be obvious to a boy starting at the bottom of one of the departments. It only shows itself as he gets round the departments and begins to see the business as a whole. And it is further marked by the fact that, on entering a business of this kind, as most people who go into business now must, the first task must be to master the detail of the trade in question—its technique. To do this properly usually involves a certain amount of sheer manual toil, which is often not very romantic, I am afraid.

Perhaps those for whom this is written will not be interested in the mere manual labour attached to the conducting of a great business. They will have received something more



than an elementary education, and if they are going into business will look for executive and administrative positions. But everything must have a beginning, and if they are to be of value in those positions they must know intimately the conditions under which the work is carried out. They ought, therefore, to go into the factory or workshop and learn something of the actual manual labour, or they will not have sufficient knowledge to enable them to control the staff which carries on the multifarious manual operations. They should learn by actual experience what has to be done before they make any endeavour to direct those who are doing it.

This does not mean that they can be content with a mere smattering by way of education, relying substantially upon the reputation of the well-known school to which they may happen to belong. In future the man who wishes to direct must at the least have a solid general grounding. In my opinion the very lowest standard to be aimed at in school preparation for those who desire to enter a business house with any hope of acquiring a responsible position is the matriculation standard, which is demanded as a beginning to most of the professions. I am not suggesting that education should stop at the matriculation standard, but that the acquirement of the necessary subjects to pass this standard supplies a boy with an essential groundwork for further progress. The object of education is not merely the acquiring of specific knowledge, though this is by no means to be despised, but the development of the mental faculties. My experience in business is that the better the education the shorter will be the time which will have to be spent in the somewhat tedious task of acquiring what I have called the manual technique.

Do not worry about trying to specialise in so-called "commercial subjects" if you are going in for a commercial career. Schooling from this point of view is merely necessary mental athletics to provide for proper mental development. Special knowledge will be acquired in the business better

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than by any attempt to specialise at school. It will be more vital, up-to-date, and better adapted to the needs of the particular case than any academic training in "business subjects" possibly can be. In the beginning what a business management looks for is mental capacity, apart from actual knowledge. This does not seem to be specially assisted by any particular study. We have in my own company young men from the Universities who have specialised in History, in Mathematics, in Engineering and in Economics, and each of them seems equally capable of taking up a business career with a reasonable prospect of success. Remember, on the other hand, that it is impossible to say that anything you learn at school or in college will be of no use to you, however remote it may appear from the activities of commerce. Most experienced business men could, I think, tell of occasions when what was apparently the most commercially worthless piece of information has been of real utility and value.

The question at what time to gain experience among the manual workers is one of real difficulty. It is difficult to decide whether this ought to follow immediately upon the school work or whether it ought to be taken at a later period, because the youth who is going through this process may not carry to the work the necessary imagination to see what is its value. He is hardly likely at an early age to have sufficient psychological insight to get the best value out of it, but if he has had the experience even early in life, as he grows older he will be able to place it in its right perspective at a later date. A boy will usually be more elastic in adapting himself to circumstances than will a man, because he should not have formed the settled habits of life which tend to form as we grow older, and which are often a difficulty in the way of a man's attempt to learn the routine of a factory at a comparatively mature age. The actual age at which this is done must largely depend upon whether a boy goes on to the University. But, in my view, it should always be undertaken as early as possible.



Another difficulty he will have to face at the outset of his career is that a large business house is a world in miniature, and that for the first time he will find himself among all types of men and women, some of which will probably be temperamentally uncongenial to him. He will probably find, too, that the atmosphere of business is somewhat harsher than that to which he has been accustomed. There is perhaps more competition and less comradeship. On this topic I can do no better than quote a passage from Henry Ford's book *My Life and Work*, a book I commend heartily to everyone proposing to begin a business career, not because of the exceptional success of its author (I am here trying to deal with normal cases), but because I believe that success to have been built upon sound lines, ably and interestingly described in the book, a knowledge of which cannot fail to be of some assistance to every business man, both present and future.

Ford says : " I pity the poor fellow who is so soft and flabby that he must always have an atmosphere of ' good fellowship ' around him before he can do his work. There are such men. And in the end, unless they obtain enough mental and moral hardness to lift them out of their soft reliance on ' feeling,' they are failures. Not only are they business failures ; they are character failures also ; it is as if their bones never attained a sufficient degree of hardness to enable them to stand on their own feet. There is altogether too much reliance of ' good feeling ' in our business organisations. People have too great a fondness for working with the people they like. In the end it spoils a good many valuable qualities.

" Do not misunderstand me ; when I use the term ' good feeling ' I mean that habit of making ones personal likes and dislikes the sole standard of judgment. Suppose you do not like a man. Is that anything against him ? It may be something against you. What have your likes or dislikes to do with the facts ? Every man of common sense knows that there are men he dislikes who are really more capable than he is himself."

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If a boy is intelligent and anxious to progress when he gets into business he will take up special subjects for study with a view to acquiring particular technical information suitable to the special branch he finds himself in. As he acquires experience he will find it much easier to decide what suits his particular task, position and opportunities than is possible while at school. If he leans to any particular branch he will soon, by means of the special knowledge so acquired, obtain the interest of his superiors and so get his foot on the ladder of progress. After a certain amount of technical training the young man will begin to learn something of the essential parts of managerial work from the standpoint of efficiency. Economy and efficiency are almost interchangeable terms, for that is not efficient in business which does not take into account economy. The expert manager must know something of accounts, and especially of costing systems. The details of the costing system are usually prepared by the statistical clerks in a large business, but the material for these statistics comes from the works, and the manager should know how to lay out his works and accounts so as to make the obtaining of statistics as easy as possible. Simplicity tends to accuracy. He must know how to utilise the statistics that are submitted to him, and understand the comparison of the various charts which the statistician will prepare. While he is acquiring this side of his mental equipment he will probably give indications of his powers of judgment, and so show whether he is fitted for administrative as well as executive work. This is a short general outline of progress. It cannot be elaborated in detail because the details will vary with every business, but in every business the general principles are the same.

Now this little sketch implies going through considerable drudgery in the early period of training and giving up a substantial amount of one's own time. So far, my experience is that the majority of young men seem incapable of submitting to this very necessary discipline. They are beginning to



earn a little money and they seem anxious to spend it, and so much time has been spent in their schools on games that they are apt to consider games as the principal part of life. It is true that a certain amount of recreation is necessary to keep the body in health, and we all know that if the body be not kept in health the mind cannot work satisfactorily. But work must be given the first place, not recreation. When it is necessary to forgo the recreation for a time in order that the work may be better done that sacrifice must be made, and the sooner that is recognised the better.

One of our first tests of a youngster's capacity is what he does outside his business hours. If he gives up promptly at five or six o'clock and spends the rest of his time at games, generally we do not find that he goes very far. One of the few things a keen man is usually not keen about is the hour at which he gives up business. We like to know, too, that he does some work, apart from his daily occupation, towards equipping himself for a bigger berth. The drudgery must be done at one end of life ; if it is not done in the early stages it will have to be done in the later, and the elderly drudge is a rather pitiable object.

Our leisure and recreations must be made to accord with the exigencies of our business. It is useless to endeavour to get as much leisure as a friend may have, if one's occupation does not permit of it. So many are restricted in the choice of an occupation because certain businesses interfere with certain recreations in which they are interested. There are few careers which offer such advantages to the fairly well-educated as the hotel and catering business, and the modern tendency to spend more time away from home, helped largely by the facilities for travel, are making it daily more important ; but it is rare that that class of lad will enter it at the bottom, because some of the work which can only be mastered by practice is uncongenial to the majority of people ; thorough grounding in the detail usually involves roughing it abroad, and the hours of work are not so convenient for

athletic sports as office and factory work. The result is that the most successful people in the higher branches of the business are generally foreigners, who are not so sport-ridden, and who have acquired, with their business, a knowledge of the people, methods and languages of many nations.

I have read that no man has improved his position in business without sacrifice at some time or another. The lives of all who have succeeded must be a record of sacrifices, for their achievement is largely the result of putting aside the pleasure of the moment for the sake of the advantage that may accrue in the future.

From long years of experience I am convinced that the youngster who forms the opinion that a business in which he has started offers no scope—no future—is not likely to make much headway in commercial life, for in the majority of instances the trouble is that he lacks the insight to realise the possibilities before him. Not that I wish to convey the impression that every capable man has the temperament which will enable him to work happily in every sphere. I do wish, however, to emphasise that any youth who wishes to do well must take the blame largely to himself if he does not get as far as his inclinations would carry him.

The mainspring of personal progress is ambition, but ambition alone may give rise only to discontent or envy. What is wanted to feed ambition is the power to observe the conditions in which the work engaged in is being carried on and may be developed, and the closest study of every detail connected with it until one has complete mastery of it. Cultivate also the habit of dealing promptly with matters as they arise. The man who puts things off till to-morrow will find that the need for his action has probably gone by, or that someone else has supplanted him.

All these remarks are, I realise, very general, and may not assist very far those who find difficulty in choosing a business in which to find pleasant and profitable occupation. In the end the decision must always rest with the individual.



The boy, or his parents, must decide whatever the suitable trade is to be. They should be capable of judging whether engineering, accountancy, banking, general trading or manufacturing is likely to be most suitable. I have tried to indicate here, as I see them, the general conditions of success and the broad lines upon which a boy going into business will find his future widening out before him. There is, however, one other important topic which ought to be considered—his relations to others in the business world.

In business it is a good thing to form early the habit of making friends of those about you—the right friends, of course. "Birds of a feather flock together," and the intelligent, capable people generally flogather; a great deal will be derived from the association of keen minds. One can generally learn something from every acquaintance, even if it is only something to avoid, and if that habit alone can be cultivated some good will be done. Not that I think young people should imitate each other too closely. The man of character will generally disregard the details in others, though he will probably observe keenly enough what others have found to their advantage.

If a boy really means to get on, he can do no better than to let it be seen by his labour and the intelligence put into it that it is the good of the business and the interests of his employer that he has at heart. Whole-hearted loyalty is not so common in the commercial world that it has ceased to be of value, high value, and it will be rare indeed that the reward does not come. What employer worthy of the name exists who will not appreciate the man who is out to give the fullest value for his wage? Employers are in business to make their concerns profitable, and will always take the keenest interest in those most useful in the achievement of successful results. Here, to my mind, is to be found the peculiar advantage of business from the point of view of boys just starting life without financial backing. I believe no other career offers modest independence so swiftly and a reasonably assured

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position and prospect to the young man who will show the character and tenacity to pursue the kind of course I have indicated. Of course, like everything else, the business life is not free from "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune." But it should be borne in mind that for the man who has really mastered his trade the particular employer is a secondary consideration. He will rarely, indeed, be without the opportunity of remunerative employment. But, remember, that a trade is not mastered in a day. Many a young man has abandoned business because he thought his employers did not pay sufficient attention to him, because he was not getting on fast enough, when a little more patience would have had its reward. Let us listen to Henry Ford again: "It is not sensational brilliance," he says, "that one seeks in business, but sound substantial dependability. Big enterprises of necessity move slowly and cautiously. The young man with ambition ought to take a long look ahead, and leave an ample margin every time for things to happen."

Apart from this, one can only derive an interest in life itself by taking an absorbing interest in one's life work, not so much for the immediate cash reward (though that will come), as for the pleasure of acquiring the ability to overcome difficulties, foresee dangers, and take advantage of opportunities as they come within our grasp. A business career carried on in this spirit will afford endless interest, and will ensure results equal to the abilities of the individual far more surely than can be achieved in a professional career.

In a business, however small or great, a great and human interest can be taken in the social and intellectual welfare of all those connected with the concern. Every large business nowadays recognises the value of studying the health and happiness of its staff. In many cases this is carried out through the efforts and interests of the employees themselves, the employers extending a sympathetic hand towards the accomplishment of that social improvement which has become a necessary phase of commercial and industrial life.



There is an avenue for the energies of the best brains in the land to travel. Commerce and industry can be carried on with honour to the individual and with profit and prosperity to the community. In the process the wisest and best instincts of human nature can be fostered, the health of those connected with the concern studied and improved, and the whole organisation lifted to a high plane, enabling everyone to achieve the personal lasting satisfaction that comes from the knowledge that our occupation and our methods of following it may leave the world richer and better for our share in the guidance of its material social destinies.





# The Dominions

BY

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TO make good in the Dominions self-reliance, perseverance, and adaptability are required. The youth of unstable disposition is not likely to excel ; the youth who is determined to get on and not afraid of work, who will stick to a job though it may not be altogether congenial to him, while he is all the time keeping his eyes open for something better, is not likely to fail.

It is a good maxim to remember that in all civilised countries the really capable man is nearly always at a premium. In a new developing country it rests with him whether he remains in a subordinate position or becomes an employer himself, for there competition is less, the openings for those who have acquired experience more numerous, and the amount required for starting capital not so great. Speaking generally, the Dominions, in which there is plenty of room for development, offer opportunities to young men to put themselves quickly on the road to a competence, or, as the case may be, to wealth. That is, of course, for those of the right character and spirit. It is unwise for the indolent, the unsteady, or the too fastidious youth to imagine that the Dominions will suit him better than the country in which he has been reared. If his characteristics are of this kind he had better stay at home, where he is more likely to have friends or connexions who are willing to tolerate his defects and to gratify his caprices.

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The youth of ordinary intelligence, who keeps progress steadily in view and is willing and persevering, may proceed with confidence as regards his future.

There is no quality which will bring him more quickly into sympathy with the new friends he will make in British Dominions than a determination to "get on." In those countries he will find his best opportunity among the class of men actively engaged in the production of the primary sources of wealth, and that class of man admires a "trier." Often in Australia I have heard it said of a "new chum," by someone who has met him, "He's all right; he'll get on; he means it;" and such remarks are sure tokens of welcome, and an earnest of good will to help, if possible, one who intends to help himself in an honest career.

The question of character as an element in migration, though not so often dwelt upon as other considerations, is of prime importance, and closely connected with it is the question of good demeanour. They are the factors which make a new arrival acceptable, and are as important to him as a careful marketing and the presentation of his stock-in-trade in an attractive manner, are to the merchant or the retailer. He should never be critical or pose as a "know all" before he does know. A disposition to be helpful and willing to learn will meet with a better response and is the attitude to be adopted.

In the early stages of a career in the Dominions the new-comer's chief asset will be the work he can do by which he can earn his sustenance and wages, or in other words sell for value. The proceeds of this transaction will not only be reckoned by the cash return. Far from it. While the employer will get his return in the form of work done for him and the employee a return in the form of his keep and wages, the latter, if he is not a hopeless drudge, will be adding to his capital every day by the knowledge and experience he is gaining. This knowledge is essential to him for his future success. He can get it in no quicker, better or more effective way than by practical experience. As the first qualification



for command is to know how to obey, so the best qualification for directing work is the ability to perform it oneself.

The fortunate youth who "has money behind him," or a present fund at his disposal, should never be so foolish as to think that immediately on arrival he can invest it to advantage in the purchase of land, or run a farm before he knows the country. It is better to be paid for getting the needful experience than to dissipate your capital in the process of learning it. And this can be done by regarding one's early years as an apprenticeship to a business needing brains as well as brawn.

The great consulting engineer whose fees are reckoned in thousands of pounds has had to go through a similar mill, and to put on "dungarees" and often begin in the yards or factory as a working hand. Hence to every candidate for a Dominion career on the land the first word of advice is: Hire yourself out as a worker. If one has learnt in another country how to do the jobs required on farms—to drive horses or motors, to milk, plough, harrow, etc., and to feed stock—it will be so much to the good; but let no one think that it will diminish very greatly what he will have to learn. And he can make no greater mistake than to assume that because he may have had some experience of work on the land elsewhere it has qualified him to pose as an authority as to how things ought to be done under the conditions of the new country in which he finds himself.

The knowledge of operations he may have will very likely put him in a better position as regards his starting wage than if he were totally raw and inexperienced, but wherever he goes his eyes should at first be kept open and his mouth shut. He should make it his business to learn all he can and be guided by the wishes of those from whom he takes his orders, and not assume that he knows better than they.

If in his early years he always keeps before him the prospect of advancement, and regards his first jobs whatever they be as stepping-stones to higher things, and if he will save as

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much as he can out of the wages he earns, he will have an excellent chance of establishing himself in a good position in the course of a few years.

That is particularly true of the country I have the privilege of representing, namely Australia. It is a country which reproduces the civilised life of Great Britain in a great continent on the other side of the world—a continent equal in area to the United States of America and almost as large as the whole of Europe. It has in the capitals of each of the States into which it is divided six great modern cities, which serve as the main centres of distribution and seats of mercantile and professional life; there are also many country towns and smaller centres of population. The population in cities and towns in Australia is more than half the total of the inhabitants, as it comprises in the main the mercantile and professional sections of the community, and those engaged in manufactures and skilled trades, with their wives and families.

Hence in all these lines of occupation there is less room for new-comers seeking employment and more competition for any vacant situations, and it is quite impossible for Governments or migration authorities to encourage with promises of sure employment candidates for mercantile or professional work or generally for manufacturers or city trades. The rising generation locally comes on from year to year from Universities, technical colleges and schools in sufficient numbers to meet most of the ordinary demands, and though there is always room for exceptional or well-proved ability in any line, there is no need for employers to go abroad for a personnel that they have at hand, able to be tested as time and circumstances require, and consequently the prospects for those unable to reach the country for weeks to come of obtaining firm engagement in advance are practically nil.

Intending settlers must therefore remember this in connection with their migration. Town life is a field in which private friendships and local influence can be of the utmost



value, but one in which the Government or migration authorities under present conditions cannot take responsibility for passages or give guarantees of employment. If, however, the migrant has been nominated by a resident who is in a position to help him on arrival, and such nomination can be approved by the local migration authorities, the Government of Australia will help him to get out.

For any youth of grit and stability the field is open wide ; merit wins and recognition is prompt, but the laws of competition are in operation in the Dominions as they are in England, and for places and openings for which candidates are plentiful firm engagements months in advance cannot be secured. Hence the well-educated youth whose ambition is to make good in professional or mercantile life must be prepared to wait until some proof of his ability has been given locally. In this respect the new arrival is in no worse position than the locally-bred youth ; it is impossible, and it would be unfair, to put him in a better one.

No one would wish to prevent the immigration of young men able and willing to take their places in any department of life in the Commonwealth or other British Dominion. Personally he who can gain a footing in the cities is as welcome as any, but the openings for him are fewer, more precarious, and subject to local competition. They are not to be reckoned on in advance.

To such a youth the Government speaks honestly and plainly, and says that it cannot guarantee to find him a situation. The country is open to him, but he must make his own way in it as the young Australian with similar ambitions has to do.

#### WORK ON THE LAND.

And now, having said so much, let us turn to the real and substantial opportunity that a country like Australia at its present stage of progress offers to those who are steady and industrious.

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For many years to come Australia will be able to absorb the land-workers she can get, and to offer them good prospects for independence. There is no other country in a better position at the present time to advance the interests and welfare of the young farmer.

She has an abundance of good land which is capable of producing all kinds of food. For many years she has been sending to the principal markets of the world such things as wool, butter, wheat, fruit, etc., and no matter how keen the competition may become, Australia's overseas trade in these commodities must expand enormously.

Before the war thousands of young men gladly accepted the chance of bettering themselves. A large number of them are no longer farm labourers. They are already settled upon farms of their own. Those boys went out just as others may now do. They went out to farms and orchards where there was work awaiting them; they learned their business and got paid while they were learning it; they put their savings into banks and then struck out for themselves. The fine record of these boys, most of whom had very little to hope for in earlier years, is most creditable and inspiring to themselves, but creditable also to the new country which gave them the opportunities to stretch themselves and prove their mettle.

Australia, however, differs from other countries of the Empire—with the exception of her southern sister and near neighbour New Zealand—in being almost exclusively of British race. She has fewer foreigners in proportion to the population than the United Kingdom itself. The speech of Australia from sea to sea is the English speech, and this fact alone gives to the new-comer from the Old Land the sense of being at once at home.

Australia is a pleasant and kindly land for a boy to start the serious part of his life in, but the basis of success in Australia, as in every other country, is hard work; not dreary, hopeless toil, perhaps, but still steady, consistent, intelligent



work. The British boys we have been speaking about have "found their feet" in Australia only because they have kept their hands busy in doing the things which the country found them to do. It is not the life of the city but of the country that you are asked to consider, because the country life gives to the boy who has to rely solely upon his own efforts a surer chance of making good, and a position in the country carries with it board and lodging; and this "keep" is the all-important thing until such time as the boy is able to earn a man's wages.

If you look at the map of Australia you will notice that not far in from the eastern sea-board, commencing in the north of Queensland and continuing south with a curve to the westward in the State of Victoria, is the main chain of mountains called the Great Dividing Range. This coastal strip between the mountains and the sea, although it may not look very extensive when viewed in relation to the rest of Australia, nevertheless represents a very large territory—a territory of abundant rainfall, many rivers, and great fertility, a territory in which several times the present population of Australia could subsist in comfort. It is in the northern half of this coastal country—from, say, Cooktown in the north of Queensland down into the north of New South Wales—that the tropical fruits are grown—the pine-apples and bananas, the paw-paws and custard apples and all the rest of them. This region is also the home of the sugar-growers, the production of cane sugar being the most extensive form of purely tropical agriculture yet developed in Australia. Farther to the south are produced citrus and other fruits suitable to the climate, which grows generally cooler as you come down the coast. All along this coastal territory, however, are also mixed farms and dairy farms, particularly the latter. The dairy industry is a very important one, and much of the butter which is eaten in the United Kingdom is produced on the farms of this region.

Here, too, are some of the great forests of hard and soft

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woods from which the timber industry draws its supplies ; moreover, it is very beautiful country.

Dairying, fruit-growing, and mixed farming extend also on to the broad tablelands which slope away gradually to the great inland plains. From the south of Queensland down through New South Wales and Victoria this intermediate belt would be described as broad-acre farming country. You are on the wheat belt, wheat being one of the crops which Australia grows in abundance for the world as well as for herself. Here again begin the sheep farms and the sheep and some of the cattle stations. You may wonder at the term "station" as distinguished from "farm." The difference is principally a matter of size. In the more settled parts of Australia anything up to, say, 5,000 acres may be spoken of as a farm ; anything above that up to tens of thousands of acres, perhaps, would be classed as a station. The exception is in parts of Queensland and Western Australia, where stations run often to 1,000,000 acres or more, and a mere pocket-handkerchief block of 25,000 or 50,000 acres would be a "little man's" block, and be called a grazing farm or selection. Then, again, on a farm in the agricultural regions, although a lot of stock might be carried, the main concern is crops. On a station the main concern is stock, which is grazed on the natural pastures ; there may be some cultivation of crops for domestic use, but rarely more than this.

Glancing at the map again, and following the coast round, we find in South Australia much mixed farming and fruit and vine growing, with the areas broadening out into station properties as you go inland. Then continuing west for a thousand miles or so across the trans-Australian railway, passing through the world-famed goldfields of Kalgoorlie and Coolgardie, you do not reach the farming country until you come to the south-east corner of Western Australia. Here again you get orchards and vineyards, dairy farms and wheat and general farms ; but, as you will see, Western Australia is a huge state, and although horticultural and agricultural



operations are developing rapidly, the area so devoted, as yet, is infinitesimal compared with the area which awaits development. Beyond the farming area, stretching to the north and inland, are sheep and cattle runs of enormous extent. Coming east again, we observe to the south of Victoria the island State of Tasmania. "The tight little Island," as it is known in Australia, may look a tiny dot on the map beside its big mother, but nevertheless it is 26,000 square miles in extent, and looks and feels more like England than almost any part of the mainland. It is a great apple producing state, and its farms, though generally smaller in area than those of the mainland, are very productive, and the Tasmanians are a very prosperous and happy community.

Thus the boy coming to Australia can get a start on the mixed farm, the dairy farm, the orchard or vineyard, the wheat and sheep farm and the station.

On the dairy farms he will be in the current of a most profitable and highly-organised industry, and will acquire a most useful knowledge of one class of stock. On the mixed farms—on the larger wheat and sheep farms especially—he will be familiarised with the most extensive use of various classes of machinery, and will learn to handle teams of horses, and will likewise make acquaintance with the golden animal which is the instrument of Australia's largest production—the sheep. There is room for boys on the big stations; the life there is broader than it is on the farm, and doubtless some boys would like it better. But the openings for boys without previous experience of that kind of life are not so numerous, and, moreover, the British boy would not get so immediately useful a training as he would in orcharding, dairying, and general agriculture.

In the orchard or vineyard the work is concentrated upon a small area, but it is very diversified. Here the boy, if he has a will to learn, can soon gain some useful knowledge about the methods and purposes of cultivation, the growth and care of trees and vines, and the handling of fruit for market.

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Fruit-growing is an occupation full of interest, and involves no heavy strain. Australia is a great grower of fruit, and its climate and soil are so ideally suited to the production of every variety and description, each of the highest quality, that she seems destined, as markets are developed, to hold the premier place as a fruit producer, even as she has long done as a producer of merino wools. The boy who elects to gain experience in horticultural work can always keep before him the prospect of having an orchard or a vineyard of his own, as for such purpose he will need but a small area of land.

No matter to what part of Australia you go, however, or whatever the kind of property one starts on, the first requirement is to learn to be generally useful and to do whatever is asked cheerfully and intelligently.

Wages increase with experience. Capable and reliable hands receive from 30s. to 45s. per week with "keep."

A very large proportion of rural workers, however, make much more. It suits some to remain in steady work on a farm and save their wages; others branch off into contract or seasonal work open to all-round men in country districts. One may earn from 10s. to 18s. per day and "keep" during the harvesting season, according to capacity and the particular class of work, or one may go into pastoral work and follow up the shearing sheds during the wool season. A shearer can earn anything from 20s. to 40s. per day throughout the season according to his degree of expertness.

There are so many ways in which the really competent rural worker, the man who can "turn his hand to anything," can employ himself in Australia that it would be tedious and perhaps confusing to attempt to describe them here. The steady, reliable man with knowledge of country crafts is never stuck for employment, and if he is at all careful he need never be stuck for money.

But the ultimate goal is the ownership of a property. When one has been in Australia for a time and understands how to handle land in a profitable manner it is possible to



decide what kind of land is wanted, where to seek it, and what to pay for it. In all the Australian States Government land is generally available, and the terms of acquisition are about as easy as they can be made. Government land varies in value according to its character, quality, and nearness to railways and market centres. It is often more out of the way, however, than private land, and if one does not want to travel in the footsteps of the pioneers and tackle raw country, which may require the expenditure of much hard work to bring it into a condition to return an income, one has always the opportunity of obtaining his start on the improved lands in the settled districts.

Then there is farming "on shares." This system has provided thousands of men with a means of making a start for themselves. The "share system" is applied mainly to dairy and wheat farms. The owners provide the land (and in the case of dairy farms the stock also) and the farmer does the work. The parties share the proceeds in such proportions as may be agreed upon. On well-conducted private estates, where the land is good and the "share" farmers well selected, the system works well, and in a few seasons the farmer saves enough money to purchase land of his own.

There are innumerable ways of making a start on the land in Australia, where being a farmer's boy is a good first step to being a farmer, and a prosperous farmer, as many boys have done and are continuing to do. The path is easier in Australia to-day than it used to be. As maxims for a Dominion career I would say :—

Go to work on the land.

Be truthful and honest.

Cheerfully take the rough with the smooth. Remember that a smile will take you farther than a growl.

Save your money. Let the other fellow have his good time now. You'll have a better one later on.

Determine that at the earliest moment you will have your own land—be your own boss ; and

In all things "stick it."

## THE DOMINIONS

If these are the intentions and resolutions of anyone who reads this chapter, he may hear something to his advantage by communicating with the Migration and Settlement Offices of the Dominions' representatives in London.

If he wishes to engage in other pursuits they are not likely to be able to assist him, but must leave him—albeit with hearty good wishes—to his own energies and resources.



# Engineering

BY

SIR ROBERT A. HADFIELD, Bart., D.Sc., D.Met., F.R.S.,  
F.I.C., M.Inst.C.E.

**T**HE field of Engineering and the duties of the Engineer are so extensive that it is impossible to deal with either at all fully in the space here available.

## THE IMPORTANCE OF EDUCATION.

The boy who wishes to take up any branch of Engineering as a trade or profession should first equip himself with a sound general education, then with a general training in the principles of Science, including Physics and Chemistry, and finally with the specialised knowledge relating to his particular work in life. To some extent these phases of education overlap, and it is, of course, true that in no branch is one's education ever complete. There is always something to learn throughout life, and the point which it is here desired to emphasise is the importance of obtaining a firm basis of general elementary knowledge, and of avoiding the dangers of too early and too narrow specialisation. This principle applies not only to those who have the opportunity of a University training, but also to those who begin to earn their living directly they leave school.

## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

As already stated, whatever the branch of Engineering which it is proposed to follow, the first essential is a thorough

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groundwork of elementary knowledge. The elaborate curricula of modern schools produce many brilliant scholars, but, on the other hand, it is a common complaint that many boys who leave school at the age of 14 years have a very imperfect knowledge of the "three R's"—reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The more knowledge a boy can acquire at school the better, provided that it is really absorbed and properly supported by thorough familiarity with elementary principles. On the other hand, if his elementary knowledge be defective his apparent "higher education" will be quite illusory.

### NARROW SPECIALISATION IS UNDESIRABLE.

Up to the age of 14 or 15 years the primary concern of every boy should be to become well grounded in general education. The years which follow should be some of the busiest, as they are undoubtedly some of the most important, of his life. Specialisation must be commenced, but it should not be too rigid. The boy who proposes to become a skilled artisan should start his apprenticeship at the age of 14 or 15 years, and the boy who aims at higher posts must begin to specialise on the advanced study relating thereto. It must be remembered, however, that the artisan does not work with his hands and tools alone, and that theoretical knowledge is not by itself sufficient for any engineer. The apprentice must therefore continue his bookwork, and the college student must take every opportunity of acquiring manual dexterity and manipulative skill. At the age of 20 years or so the young artisan should be capable not only of working at his trade, but also of understanding and applying the principles involved, whilst at the same age the youth who has spent some years in advanced study of theory should have sufficient practical skill to enable him to apply his theoretical knowledge to the methods and needs of the workshop and factory.

Such qualifications on the part of both classes of youths



cannot be acquired without much hard work, but they are worth obtaining, and there are to-day excellent facilities for their acquisition.

### FACILITIES FOR TRAINING.

It has been said that engineers, like poets, are born, not made. However this may be, much can be done by any boy to make himself a better engineer by taking full advantage of the many facilities now at his disposal.

Taking the case of a boy aged, say, 14 years, the two broad avenues of training along which he may advance lie respectively in the workshop and in the technical college or similar institution.

The Education Act of 1918, otherwise known as the Fisher Act, provided for the compulsory education of all young persons between the ages of 14 and 18 years at continuation classes covering the study of English, History, Geography, and Mathematics, instruction in Handicraft, Practical Science, and vocational work generally, and physical training.

A number of the leading engineering firms in the country have already applied the spirit of the Fisher Act by providing excellent schemes for the education of their apprentices, and an inquiry addressed to the Ministry of Education or to the Local Education Authorities will enable anyone to discover what facilities for training are available in his own district, whether as part of a firm's apprenticeship or as continuation classes open to any student, regardless of his place of employment.

The case of the youth who takes a college course after leaving school is rather different. If he enrolls himself at one of the Universities which provide specially for Engineering in its various branches, *i.e.* Oxford, Cambridge, London, Manchester, Sheffield, Birmingham, and others, he will be able to study under some of the ablest professors in this or any other country. In due time he will be able to sit for examinations leading to

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the various degrees granted in the different branches of Engineering. If successful in these, he will have what is undoubtedly a "hall-mark," and one which is now more extensively appreciated than was formerly the case.

Every young engineer should take the earliest opportunity of entering the student class in the institution or society which is devoted to the field in which he works. To do so is an easy matter, and the benefits derived are great. Recognising the importance of encouraging and assisting the younger men, most of the leading institutions offer to students practically all the benefits of full membership, except, of course, the power of voting and the status attached to the senior grades. Usually the only condition for admission as a student is that the candidate shall actually be undergoing apprenticeship, pupilage, or a recognised course of tuition. In return for quite a small subscription the student is allowed to attend all meetings and visits, and he receives the printed *Proceedings* of the institution. These valuable privileges continue until the student reaches an age—say 25 years—at which he should be qualified for corporate membership, and able to afford the heavier subscription attaching thereto. That he should then seek admission to the class of associate member, and later to the class of member, goes without saying. The conditions for admission to these classes are, in all the leading institutions, so rigorous that membership is, what it ought to be, a guarantee of professional qualification, and a *cachet* superior in some respects to that of a University degree, for it demands and takes cognisance of practical experience in a way which no examination can do.

### A FEW NOTABLE TRAINING CENTRES.

In the space here available it is impossible to deal with all the training centres of the country, but a few may be given special mention in order to illustrate the preceding remarks.



The University of Oxford, which is the oldest in the British Empire, and was associated nearly 700 years ago with Roger Bacon, the founder of scientific education in this country, still contributes its quota to the leaders of science, and in the field of Engineering it is ably represented by Professor C. F. Jenkin, C.B.E., M.A., M.Inst.C.E., of the Engineering Laboratory, Oxford.

Then at Cambridge, still confining ourselves to the Engineering side, for to deal adequately with allied branches of Science would take us too far, there is the fine Engineering Laboratory over which Professor C. E. Inglis, O.B.E., M.Inst.C.E., presides so efficiently.

There are also excellent means provided in University centres outside Oxford and Cambridge. Thus, in the author's city, there is Sheffield University, now under the direction of Sir Henry Hadow, C.B.E., M.A., Hon. D.Mus., as Vice-Chancellor, than whom there is no higher educationalist in the country.

A most useful source of training for an Engineering career is to be found in the Applied Science Department of Sheffield University, which was run for so long and so successfully by Professor W. Ripper, M.Inst.C.E., whose work is now being worthily followed by the activities of Professor F. C. Lea, D.Sc., M.Inst.C.E. On the metallurgical side students have the admirable guidance and teaching of Dr. C. H. Desch, F.R.S., who followed Professor J. O. Arnold, F.R.S., in this responsible post.

One of the most notable training centres, making a special point of practical as well as theoretical instruction, is Faraday House, London, the Principal of which is Dr. Alexander Russell, M.A., F.R.S. By arrangement with a number of leading firms, the students are able to follow their preliminary theoretical training by practical experience in commercial undertakings of various kinds, after which they return to Faraday House for further instruction.

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## THE CAREER ITSELF.

So far consideration has been mainly devoted to questions of education, which are, after all, of the highest importance, because the future of any boy depends largely on his training.

The openings or opportunities for the individual vary widely with the nature of his training and according to his ability and character. Hard work directed towards the acquiring of sound knowledge on the lines indicated is the best guarantee of ultimate success. Industry and perseverance will always gain recognition, and whilst it must be admitted that chance often gives to one youth an earlier or better opportunity than another enjoys, yet, as Shakespeare has well said :

"Men at some time are masters of their fates ;  
The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,  
But in ourselves, that we are underlings."

Sooner or later an opportunity for advancement comes to every man. Whether he recognises it or not, and whether he is or is not qualified to take advantage of it, depends largely upon his training. If the latter has been sound and upon broad general lines, that is "liberal" in the best sense of the word, he will be alert to see his opportunities and competent to adapt himself to what may be a departure from the exact line of work he had expected to follow.

It is neither possible nor desirable here to specify all the branches of Engineering and all the openings which it offers for a career. Natural advantages and individual taste and circumstances will largely determine whether a boy shall qualify himself as an artisan and rise to the positions of foreman or works manager, or whether he shall become a designer, an administrator, a research worker, or a commercial engineer. In these days of changing and growing industries, excellent educational facilities, and innumerable scholarships, there is no hard and fast limit set upon the career of any young engineer. Moreover, there is room for engineers of all classes



and grades, and the prospects are good for all, provided that each is fit for and keen in his work. That excellent proverb, "There is plenty of room at the top," was never more true than it is to-day. We have passed through difficult times, and there are more to come, but the boy who is willing to work hard will find that an Engineering career is as interesting to him as it is useful to mankind, and that it offers opportunities and rewards which will repay him for his labour.

### THE FIELD OF RESEARCH.

In concluding these brief notes on a subject concerning which a large book might well be written, the author would like to refer to some of the events in his own career, not from any personal reason, but because they afford a good example of what important results may result from systematic application of scientific method.

Prior to the author's discovery of the alloy now commonly known as manganese steel, it had been found that on adding more than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of manganese to steel the metal became progressively more brittle until, when the proportion of manganese reached 7 per cent., the material was of little or no value whether cast or forged. Taking nothing for granted, the author tried the effects of yet higher proportions of manganese, and was thus led to the discovery that a steel containing about 13 per cent. of manganese has most remarkable and valuable properties. Although the metal contains about 86 per cent. of iron it is practically non-magnetic, and whereas ordinary steel becomes intensely hard and brittle when cooled suddenly from a high temperature, the "Hadfield manganese steel" becomes remarkably tough when so treated.

Much has been accomplished already in this special field of Engineering, but there still remains a vast field to be explored. There are literally thousands of alloy steels which have yet to be investigated completely, and though there may not be as striking discoveries as in the past, it is not safe to make any

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assumptions on this point. As the author's work has shown, the whole field must be explored systematically and in detail.

These examples have been cited because they come from the author's experience in the branch of Engineering with which he has been primarily concerned throughout his life. The main principle illustrated, namely the tremendous possibilities awaiting the persistent worker, undoubtedly applies equally to all branches of Engineering.

Whether the worker be at the bench or in the laboratory, in the drawing office or in the field, he can, by a faithful discharge of his duties, perform with credit the task which lies to his hand. Also he can, and should, strive ever to improve himself and his work.



# Marine Engineering

BY

COMMANDER SIR EDWARD NICHOLL, R.N.R., D.L.

**E**NGINEERING as a profession embraces many branches, and the industrious boy with an inquisitive and industrious mind will find that there is no field so large or such worlds to conquer as in engineering.

The writer has seen the whole system of ship propulsion practically revolutionised two or three times during the last forty years.

Marine Engineering calls for more resourcefulness in emergencies than any other branch of the profession, because the environment is such that, perhaps a thousand miles from land or assistance, to save the ship all sorts of inventions and contrivances have quickly to be conceived and applied to bring the ship to port with passengers, crew, and cargo. Hence the Marine Engineer is compelled to pass an examination before Board of Trade examiners. The candidates must have a good working knowledge of mathematics, machine drawing and construction, and satisfy the examiners, or they are put back sometimes twelve months, to acquire the necessary knowledge. To obtain a certificate for the position of Second Engineer in an ocean-going steamship over 100 nominal horse-power the candidate must show he is in possession of a certificate of apprenticeship for at least five years and one year's sea service in a junior capacity. For his First Class Board of Trade Certificate he must have two years' full sea service in charge of engines and boilers of not less than the above-mentioned horse-power, after which

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he has to sit for four days' examination in mathematics, drawing, and a general examination in boilers and diagrams, and the other acquirements that a Marine Engineer must possess. Finally, if he has further ambitions, he may sit for what is termed his "Extra" First Class Certificate. This is a great asset for his future career, showing his love for his work and a desire to excel in the profession he has chosen and fit himself for the higher positions of Superintendent Engineer, Consulting Marine Engineer, and Nautical Assessor. Often the hard-working, ambitious, studious engineer finally becomes a shipowner, when his knowledge of engineering, coal consumption and practical working expenses and repairs places him in a better position for the successful working of a steamer than the ordinary unpractical shipowner.

Unfortunately, to-day the engineering profession, for the boy without ambition or conspicuous ability, does not hold out the attraction parents desire after an apprenticeship of five years. A boy commences generally at 15 years of age with 3s. per week, and after five years he gets about 20s. He is then a journeyman fitter or engineer, and starts probably with 30s. or 35s. per week, whilst the rivet boy who may be working on a job adjacent gets his £2 or £2 10s. per week or more, or the dustman probably £4 per week.

The skilled Marine Engineer must have a thorough knowledge of applied mechanics, mathematics, machine construction and drawing, triple and quadruple engines, high pressure boilers and auxiliary machinery, electric lighting and refrigerators, winches both steam and electric, windlass and steam steering gear, evaporators, filters, feed heaters and super-heaters, water tube boilers and ordinary cylindrical boilers, ash hoists, forced draught ventilating machines and fans, cranes and capstans, lifts, hydraulics, and the hundred and one details that go to make up a great ship's outfit and equipment—all requiring a very large amount of attention. His position on board ship, often with an insufficient staff, is no sinecure. Night and day, and often without an hour's



rest, he must maintain his ship's speed and the reputation of his ship and himself.

A Marine Engineer should have a good knowledge of the chemistry of combustion, cylinder oils and lubricants. He should be conversant with the literature of the steam engine, both past and present, as it is quite as important to know what to avoid as what to adopt.

He must be educated to look upon himself as an engineer in the truest sense of the word, and not merely one whose chief duty is to oil the engines.

In looking over the syllabus for the Board of Trade examinations it is interesting to glance at their requirements, and any person not conversant with these examinations would say that a candidate in order to be successful would require a very fair knowledge of the principles of the steam engine.

I give the syllabus published by the Board of Trade for a First Class Certificate :—

1. A candidate will be required to make an intelligible hand sketch on a working drawing of some one or more of the principal parts of a steam engine, and to mark in *without a copy* all the necessary dimensions in figures, so that the sketch or drawing could be worked from.

2. He must also be able to take off and accurately calculate indicator diagrams.

3. He must be able to calculate safety valve pressures and the strength of the boiler shell, stays and riveting.

4. He must be able to state the general proportions born by the principal parts of the machinery to each other, and to calculate the direct stress, the tortional stress and the bending stress in round bars and the direct stress and the bending stress in rectangular bars and given loads.

5. He must be able to explain the method of testing and altering the setting of the slide valves and to sketch about what difference any alteration in the slide valve will make in

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the indicator diagram, and also the method of testing the fairness of shafts, shafting, and adjusting them.

6. He must be conversant with surface condensation, super-heating, and the working of steam expansively.

7. His knowledge of arithmetic must include the mensuration of superficies and solids and the extraction of square root, and the application of these rules to questions relating to power, duty and economy of engine and boilers, and to the stresses in rods, shafts and levers of the engine. In addition to the above, the candidate has to pass a verbal examination in order to test his practical knowledge.

The question often asked by parents is, "What course would you recommend for the training of an engineer?" My answer is :—

1. Keep him in school up to the age of 16, so that he may have a good general education.

2. Apprentice him to an engineering works for a term of five years, four of which should be spent in the workshops and the last, if possible, in the drawing office.

During these five years he should attend such technical classes as can now be found in most towns for at least three evenings each week.

Perhaps it is a little singular that we still find a number of good engineers who look with anything but favour upon the technically trained man, or what they are pleased to designate as the "paper" man. I am pleased to think that this most erroneous view is fast dying out. I do not think anyone will accuse me of being a *paper man*, but I am perfectly conscious that I would have been a better engineer if I had had more paper training.

Consider for a moment some of the problems that confront the Marine Engineer to-day, and in which the technically trained man must of necessity take a very prominent part. Some of



us look upon the marine engine as a fine piece of work, but it is a most imperfect machine and capable of improvement; but if we are to make any material advance it must be on different lines from those on which we have gone. In the most modern steam practice we are only utilising a small percentage of the heat of the fuel consumed.

We have in recent times seen the application of the turbine to marine propulsion, and its success has been undoubted under the special conditions. Many authorities hailed its introduction as the doom of the reciprocating engine; but in this they were wrong, especially in slow-speed cargo vessels.

So, when we sum up the various branches of the engineering profession, in which there is so much room to reach the top, the man who has seen service as a Marine Engineer, and is in possession of a First Class Marine Engineer's Certificate, can always command first place over the shore engineer. The experience gained at sea, in the command of men, the constant development of resource in emergency fits him pre-eminently for any engineering vacancy. I have known Marine Engineers appointed tramway engineers, constructing engineers, and dock engineers for the construction of docks, both wet and dry. I have known them rise in their profession and shipowner employers take them into partnership, and later they have owned the business entirely.

So, in conclusion, the field for engineers and the prospects for the ambitious youth in the engineering profession are limitless, both at home and abroad; but my vote is in favour of the Marine Engineer's training to equip for many—if not all—of the other branches that come under review.





# Farming

BY

THE RT. HON. SIR ROBERT SANDERS, Bart., M.P.

**F**ARMING has many attractions. The object of this article is to consider how far these attractions can be combined with that amount of profit and prestige that may be said to be necessary to a "career." The aspirant to that career is assumed to be the ordinary Public School boy of moderate means and average ability, with no particular agricultural associations in his home life.

First he must learn his job. It is probably worth his while to leave school a term earlier than he intended to do in order to spend a few months on a farm before going to an agricultural college. If he leaves school at Easter he will spend on the farm the most strenuous months of the year.

With agricultural colleges the country is now well equipped. Among them perhaps the best known are Cirencester, Wye in Kent, Harper-Adams at Newport, Shropshire, Seale-Hayne at Newton Abbot, Devon, and the Midland at Sutton Bonington. At any of these a boy should take a three years' course, commencing at the age of 17. The college course is officially described as "aiming at providing a thorough technical training in agriculture and the sciences that bear upon it, such as will fit the recipient to manage a large farm with efficiency, and with the capacity to take advantage of all the opportunities that the developments of science and industry provide." At any of these colleges the boy will get a thorough grounding in the science of the industry. At Wye he can

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get special instruction as to fruit growing. At the Harper-Adams College the speciality is poultry. At all he will be taught what is most important—the business of management. To quote from Sir Daniel Hall, to whom agricultural education owes as much as to any living man: "The aim of the college course is to turn out a manager, a head rather than a hand, and this at once puts into a secondary position in the curriculum the acquisition of skill in the manual operations of the farm.

"Of course, a master must know enough of the actual job to be able to judge whether work is being properly done or not, and to put a man or machine right where effort is being wasted, and no agricultural student worth his salt but will learn to take his turn at every operation to which he has to put his men. But far more important for him is to learn exactly when the job is to be tackled, how much strength it will require, and how he must prepare for it beforehand, and what amount of work he ought to get out of his men—management, in fact."

That is the first and greatest lesson the young farmer must learn. The second is cost accounting. It is quite true that a large number of English farmers get on without accounts, and some of them make a good livelihood. But they are men who have been at farming all their lives; they know by experience and almost by instinct what line pays and what does not. The young farmer has to find this out for himself. He must learn from the figures. It is not enough to have a rough balance sheet. He should have a real accurate scheme of cost accounting. And if he finds that what he gains on the swings he loses on the roundabouts he should see whether it is not possible to have more swings and less roundabouts. I believe that one of the biggest and most successful farmers in England ascribes his success mainly to the care with which his cost accounting is done.

At an early stage of his education, if not actually before its commencement, our young farmer should make up his



mind as to the part of the country in which he means to farm. Agriculture in the corn growing districts of East Anglia, in the fruit and hop districts of Kent, and in the grazing and dairy districts of the West of England are almost different trades. It would be rash to offer advice as to the locality. It may be that the increase of world population and the adoption of a diet of corn in preference to rice by Oriental countries will restore to arable cultivation a greater measure of prosperity than it enjoys at present. It is even possible the legislature may help, but it would be foolish to bank on that. Dairy farming has the advantage of quick returns ; there is money coming in constantly as well as going out. But both dairy and grazing suffer from the chance of an attack of foot and mouth disease, a curse that has been very prevalent for the last few years. The young man must choose for himself. In most cases family association will probably influence him a great deal.

He will naturally adapt his studies to the speciality of the chosen district. Besides that, his friends must try to make sure that a farm can be found for him there. This is not always easy. It is curious but true that, in spite of bad times, the demand for farms is very brisk. But assuming that difficulty can be surmounted, a year spent with a practical farmer in the district should be the final stage in the agricultural education.

However perfect the student may be in theoretical knowledge, he will gain enormously by seeing how the actual business is carried on by a man who depends on it for his living. And he will begin to acquire some knowledge of the art of buying and selling. Nothing is more difficult, and nothing is more important. To know exactly how far you can haggle, and where you should close, to bluff the man with whom you are dealing, and to realise when he is trying to bluff you, all this comes to a few by intuition—*nascitur non fit*. But it very seldom comes in that way to the young Public School man. He generally has to buy his experience,

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and finds it very costly. The question is sometimes asked why a young man with every advantage of education loses money farming, while his neighbour with no such advantages is doing very well. The answer often is that one is good at a bargain and the other is not.

Another gain from a year on a farm is further experience in the management of men. As a race agricultural labourers are good fellows. They are not highly paid and their work is hard. Nor is it unskilled. It takes training to make a good ploughman. Cows are not milked by the light of nature. Hedging is an art that has to be learnt, and thatching is so difficult or so laborious that first-class thatchers are very hard to find.

Land workers have as good a claim to the title of "skilled" as those of many more highly-paid trades. They seldom get from the public the recognition they deserve. But they are good tempered, and if they like their master they will help him all they can. Nothing pays a farmer better than kindness to them. They must realise that he knows his job and that he is "the boss." But if he treats them as friends, if he sympathises with their troubles and tries to help them in their difficulties, they will respond. When he in turn has difficulties, they will see him through if they can.

So much for education. Now our young man is ready to start on his own account. If he is wise he will be careful not to go into a farm too big for his capital. The amount varies, of course, with the district. £15 to £20 an acre is a fair average. He will find in the long run that it will pay him best to start farming on the same lines as his neighbours. Let him walk before he begins to run. And now the cost accounting will come in. He should see before long what line is paying him best, and expand in that direction. Whatever the line may be, it will pay him to try to produce the best. There is a local show in almost every district; and if he can win prizes for his stock or his cheese or his roots, he will not only get a great deal of satisfaction, but will find that the reputation he acquires



will help the prices his produce can command. Eventually it may pay him to specialise; for instance, he may go in for pedigree stock or certified milk. But he should not be in a hurry. Safety first. Farming is not likely to bring him in a fortune, but it may bring him a competence if he really sticks to it with his nose to the grindstone.

But that is where the trouble comes in. A pleasant young fellow takes a farm in a pleasant country district. He is fond of sport. He is not averse to female society. When the hounds meet close to his house it seems foolish not to go out. One neighbour asks him to shoot; it would be churlish to refuse! Another has a dance at his house; a pity not to go; one is only young once! Summer comes round; lawn tennis is in full swing; a young man who plays well is in much request.

Just now and then one must run up to town. One gets so out of it if one is always in the country and loses sight of all one's friends. These are a few of the distractions that tempt the young gentleman who takes up farming as a career. If he goes in for them to any great extent he may have a very good time, but he is not likely to make farming pay. Some recreation he must have. But it must be business first and pleasure afterwards, if he expects the business to bring in money. It is the neglect of that maxim that brings the gentleman farmer to grief.

Now, assuming that our young man is really in earnest, and avoids the distractions of the country-side, it remains to consider how far he can make a career. To do that means a little more than keeping body and soul together, and possibly bringing up a family. It involves being known as a useful man beyond the confines of his own village. For that our system of Local Government gives ample opportunities. A good farmer can be of use on the District Council. A large and increasing number are to be found on the County Councils. The work of these local bodies is increasing in extent and importance.

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District Roads, the Poor Law, Housing, Sanitation and Water Supply all fall to District Councils and Boards of Guardians, which in country districts consist of the same people. Main Roads, Education, Small Holdings, Asylums, and many health services are the principal parts of County Council work, and hardly a session of Parliament passes without some addition to it. And all these local services mean local expense. The farming element on local bodies are watch dogs on local finance. For in spite of recent legislation, agriculture still feels the burden of the rates quite enough to be anxious to keep them as low as possible. In whatever department he is called to specialise the farmer who takes part in Local Government will find abundance of interesting work that his local knowledge makes him well qualified to perform.

The National Farmers' Union gives a further outlet for intelligent energy. A young man with ideas has every chance of making his influence felt. And experience seems to show that a certain amount of this sort of work can be done without the farm being neglected. The farmers most conspicuous in public business are usually successful in their own. A few get into Parliament, but when that fate befalls them they find it hard to remain on the active list as farmers.

Take it all round, farming is not a career with great prizes like Business or the Bar. It cannot be said that it is certain to pay its way. A well-known country gentleman of the last generation said to me once: "Farming is a very slow way of losing money, but it is absolutely sure. I have farmed 700 acres for the last thirty years, and it has cost me just £3,000."

Still, it can be said in favour of agriculture as a profession that it involves healthy outdoor life, at which a great many men undoubtedly make a living. It is a life with worries no doubt, but full of interest and not devoid of pleasure. There is a certain fascination in watching growth, whether of animals or plants. And there is real satisfaction in any success



achieved in breeding or in cultivation. To make two blades of grass grow where one grew before is still a laudable ambition. And a man who has farmed well can feel at the end of his days that he has taken no unworthy part in increasing the prosperity of his country.





# The Merchant Service

BY

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THE call of the sea is strong within most British lads, and at some period or other of their school days "a life on the ocean wave" holds out strong attractions. It is, indeed, only natural that it should be so, for on these islands we live dependent upon sea-borne goods for most of the necessities of life, and that is one of the chief reasons why our Merchant Service is of such vital importance. An eminent statesman once styled it "The jugular vein of the Empire." The Germans were well aware of this fact when they instituted their submarine campaign.

In former days there were strong links between the Royal Navy and the Merchant Service, but up to the outbreak of the Great War these had been weakened to a great extent. At that time the two services were working on entirely separate lines, each looking with a kindly tolerance on the other, the only connecting-link being the periodic training on war vessels of the officers and men who were enrolled in the Royal Naval Reserve. When war broke out these officers and men were at once called up to fulfil their obligations under the White Ensign. About the same time a number of vessels were requisitioned by the Government to act as troopships and store carriers, and as the months went by more and more vessels of every type were drawn into war service.

The conditions prevailing in the Service to-day are very different from those which were in existence some thirty or forty years ago. About that time the training of boys for

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officers and seamen began to change from sail to steam. During the latter part of the last century and the earlier years of this most boys going to sea were sent away in sailing ships, either as indentured apprentices or as boys in the forecastle. It was the custom for owners to charge a premium of anything from thirty to fifty guineas for a four years' apprenticeship, and this sum was returned to the boy in the shape of wages during his period of service.

When a boy had finished his apprenticeship and had served in the various grades, putting in the necessary time to qualify for a Master's Certificate, and later on had obtained that prized bit of parchment, there came the crucial question as to whether he should start again at the bottom of the ladder in a steamship or keep on as chief officer, with a view to getting a command in sail. Many men preferred to leave the wind-jammer as soon as the Master's Certificate was obtained, and it was from such men that the big steamship lines in those days obtained their officers. As the change from sail to steam took place it followed that the firms which were getting rid of canvas and taking to propellers transferred their own trained men into the steamships as required. The question as to whether it was better for a lad on taking up the sea as a profession to undergo training under sail or to commence at once on board a steamship has often been debated. To-day, of course, the question does not arise, because there are no British sailing ships, or only a very few, but the consensus of opinion appears to be that the training under canvas turned out the more efficient seamen. The qualities of initiative and resource, the ability to act with decision and coolness under emergency, were certainly fostered in sailing ships to a greater extent than could ever be the case in steamers. This was recognised, indeed, to such an extent by the White Star Line in Liverpool, that some years ago they bought and fitted out a sailing ship for the express purpose of training their young officers. Some forty to fifty lads were carried, and were treated the same as they would have been in a training ship, the



difference being that they were actually at sea, and learnt the business of a seaman in a practical manner. The same idea was carried out by another firm in London, but for various reasons the schemes were given up, possibly because the firms concerned found they were supplying officers for the Service in general at a considerable cost to themselves. At any rate, the ships were sold and the idea given up for the time being. Nowadays, therefore, as the sailing ship has disappeared, the training of the officer must be carried out in a steamship. But before dealing with that it will be of interest to glance at the condition of the Service as it is to-day.

At the end of the war the nation fully realised its deep obligation to the merchant seaman, and nothing appeared too good for him. The tide of war had carried him, in the esteem of his countrymen, on to a level almost alongside his brother of the Navy, and it was hoped by many who had the interests of the Service at heart that the status of the Mercantile Marine would be raised for all time. Memories are short, however, and to-day matters are more or less as they were before the war. Possibly this is only to be expected, for the Service is composed of so many differing types, so many varying elements, that it is difficult indeed to fix any particular standard or to maintain any recognised status. In the Royal Navy every officer and man is under the same central authority. Their pay, promotion and prospects all depend on the Board of Admiralty, and an officer with two stripes on his sleeve has the same position and status whether he is serving on a small destroyer or submarine or on the flagship of the Atlantic Fleet itself. In the Merchant Service things are entirely different. A man may be serving on hard-run vessels belonging to an obscure owner in Cardiff or Newcastle, or he may be dependent for his prospects on the Board of Directors of some well-known line in London or Liverpool. The Mercantile Marine, therefore, for these and many other reasons, is, and will always remain, a loosely-knit more or less disjointed Service in so far as its

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active members are concerned, although the various excellent officers' societies, such as the Merchant Service Guild and the Mercantile Marine Service Association, carry out good work regarding the pay and treatment generally.

The Service has many advantages, and also many serious drawbacks. It is little use arguing with a boy who has got salt water fever, unless he has it only in a very mild form ; but it is well that plain facts and deductions drawn from experience should be available. In the first place, the profession is first, last and all the time a man's job. The women have not yet climbed the ladder to the upper bridge, nor have they, except in a few special cases, descended the ladder to the engine-room. But there are more serious points to consider, and in the opinion of many sea-going men the most deadly argument against the sea as a profession is that one must give up to a great extent all settled home life. It is all very well whilst a man is young and unfettered, up to the age of say thirty or thirty-five years, but the time comes when that man says to himself (with a voice at his side possibly echoing the words), "What about a home?" and then it is that the sea life loses much of its charm. For there is no end to the eternal "going away," and a man is lucky indeed to-day whose ship returns regularly to the home port for a decent spell. The average time at home may be about a fortnight in a year. Another point to consider is the fact that an officer's position hangs at all times on a somewhat slender thread. He may run clear for a number of years, and then an accident may occur, possibly through no fault of his own, by which the whole of his career is spoilt. To the ordinary business or professional man such a happening is hardly possible. He may suffer losses in business or he may come across bad times, but unless he is guilty of some misconduct no such fate is likely to overtake him as would an officer in the Merchant Service, whose ship had got into trouble through collision or stranding or some similar cause. These considerations, however, will have little weight with a youngster who has made up



his mind to go to sea. Unfortunately, shipping at present is under a cloud ; freights are bad, many vessels are laid up, and unemployment in the ranks of both officers and men is very serious. However, this state of things cannot last, and the position will be dealt with on the assumption that the clouds have lifted and that matters have regained their normal condition.

There are several courses open to the lad who wishes to adopt the sea as a profession. He may join one of the training ships, the *Conway* in the Mersey or the *Worcester* in the Thames, at the age of thirteen or fourteen, and put in about two years, which will count as one year at sea with the Board of Trade for certificate purposes, or he may finish his school days on land, and then apply to any reputable firm to be entered on their books as an apprentice, or cadet, as he is often styled to-day.

The fees on the training ships are about £120 per annum, and each of these vessels is, in fact, a kind of Public School. They are intended primarily to train lads as officers in the Service, but if at the end of his period on board a lad has changed his mind he will have lost nothing by finishing his school days in that manner. If, however, the parent or guardian of the prospective officer considers it better for him to complete his education in the usual way the lad should, at the age of about sixteen years, make an application to a good firm owning a fleet of cargo vessels. Most firms in these days have a fairly long waiting list, but time and patience, and possibly a little influence, can do wonders, and eventually the lad will be sent on board a steamship in all the glory of his first uniform suit. He will be berthed in a comfortable room, and will probably take his meals at the saloon table, or at any rate in a well-appointed mess-room. The training which he will receive will depend largely on the Company's regulations in this respect, and also upon the particular master under whom he is serving. There will be no going aloft, no troublesome canvas or gear to wrestle with in heavy weather, and it will

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depend largely upon himself how many of the old elements of seamanship he will acquire ; but in the course of time he will have to learn, amongst other things, how to put out a 20-ton boiler in an open roadstead, and how to stow a thousand and one different items of cargo so that they will be free from breakages, taint, and all other ills to which cargoes are subject.

In the matter of navigation things have not altered much, except that to-day there are many more aids to the safe handling of a vessel, and many wonderful gadgets with which the modern officer must become familiar. Such items as the gyro compass, wireless direction finding, and telemotor steering gear are entirely modern products. The work still remains hard and rough to a certain extent, and the uniform suit is not always in evidence, but the conditions generally are wonderfully improved. In particular the food is good and plentiful, and the cadet to-day would look with amazement and disgust on the stuff his predecessors were given to keep body and soul together in sailing ships.

It is of interest to compare the rates of wages existing thirty or forty years ago with those obtaining to-day. About that time the pay of an A.B. was £2 10s. od. per month in sail, and that of a first and second officer about £7 and £5 a month respectively. To-day the rate is £9 for an A.B. and £20 and £15 for the first and second officers of a 3,000 to 5,000-ton cargo vessel, the rates being graded according to the size of the ship. These are the standard rates agreed to by the National Maritime Board, but in mail steamers and many good class cargo vessels the pay is considerably higher for the officers.

There are other avenues by which the Merchant Service can be entered, into departments equal in importance with that of the deck, the principal being the engine-room and the catering divisions. In order to become an engineer in the Mercantile Marine a lad must serve five years with a marine engineering firm, after which he must go to sea as a junior engineer for about eighteen months before he can sit for a Board of Trade



Certificate as second engineer. In these days, when many ocean-going steamers are fitted with all kinds of auxiliary machinery for refrigeration, electricity, etc., and when turbines and internal combustion engines are being experimented with, the engineering staff is certainly a most important item in the personnel. The catering staff also is of great importance, more particularly in the big liners, which nowadays have become palatial floating hotels, with their palm courts, restaurants, swimming baths, etc. On these vessels the purser, with his multifarious duties, holds a very responsible position, and is regarded by the passengers as almost equal in importance to the captain himself.

The democratic character of the Service is one of its greatest assets. The manner in which a lad may start a sea career and become an officer has been described, but it should be added that he may join any vessel as a deck boy, and in the course of a few months may be rated as an Ordinary Seaman. After three years in this position he may qualify as A.B., and the whole of the time put in by him will count towards the four years' foreign sea service required to sit for his certificate as second mate. It matters not whether he is a *Conway* or *Worcester* boy or a cadet from a big steamship, or whether he has put in his time in the fore-castle. If he can obtain his certificate he is eligible to act as second officer on any ship afloat. It is not to be supposed that he could obtain such a berth in a mail steamer at once, but there would be nothing to prevent him getting away as third or second officer on a tramp steamer, and gradually working his way up to command.

In conclusion, the boy who enters the Merchant Service and takes it up as a career may well be proud of his choice. Its traditions are glorious, and to-day it is a manly, interesting and healthy, although not too well paid, profession. Whilst there is no royal road to command, and promotion often seems to be irritatingly slow, yet with ordinary luck the "four stripes" may be gained whilst a man is still comparatively

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young, and then the life is full of interest and change. But—and there is always a “but”—those who “go down to the sea in ships” learn as the years go by that they are paying a stiff price for their chosen career, in the sacrificing of ordered family life and of the blessings of a home which they rarely see.

*Handwritten text, likely a letter or note, is visible below the printed text. It is mostly illegible due to fading and bleed-through. Some discernible words include "very", "that", "we", "would", "may", "be", "interested", "that", "will", "be", "useful". A signature is visible at the bottom right of the handwritten section.*



